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EDUCATION

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No. 1

Don't Overlook the Classroom Vertical File

What's the Difference?

What Parents Should Know About
the Retarded Reader



Reading Instruction Throughout the
High School Curriculum

Using Clinical Services in the Remedial Program

Learning and Remedial Reading Materials

Bread and Roses

Biodynamics vs. Freudian Psychodynamics

The Teacher and Occupational Counseling

What Schools Are Doing in Challenging
the Rapid Learner



A MAGAZINE DEVOTED *to the* SCIENCE, ART,
PHILOSOPHY and LITERATURE *of* EDUCATION

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EDUCATION

VOL. 78

SEPTEMBER, 1957

No. 1

Don't Overlook *the* Classroom Vertical File

By GUY WAGNER

*Director, Curriculum Laboratory
Iowa State Teachers College
Cedar Falls, Iowa*

EVERYWHERE WE LOOK there is evidence of man's effort to enrich his life: from goose grease to penicillin; from the raspy cylinder phonograph records of Thomas A. Edison to high fidelity; from the drafty, dirt-floor log cabin to the modern ranch-type house with its push button conveniences; from Dobbin plodding along at fives miles per hour to his machine counterpart powered by 250 horses purring quietly underneath the hood. And most of us today will not buy a loaf of bread unless it is enriched with vitamin B₁ and a host of other health-building ingredients.

Education, too, is pursuing this concept of enrichment. Schools everywhere are becoming increasingly aware of new ways and new materials for improving learning. Because education in the past was based largely on textbook teaching, we may identify this trend as enrichment *beyond* the textbook.

Much of this enrichment calls upon the taxpayer to open up his pocketbook. And rightfully so! Children are our greatest natural resource and it would be poor business judgment as well as adult

selfishness to provide them with an inferior education.

Most of our schools are meeting this challenge to a reasonable degree although there is a wide variation in both local attitudes and local potentials in this respect. However, in an increasing number of schools, we find a wide range of science apparatus, numerous and often expensive items for the physical education program, up-to-date maps and globes, classroom encyclopedias and dictionaries, facilities for working in a number of art media, well-equipped industrial art shops, and expensive musical instruments often furnished by the schools. School libraries, too, have improved vastly in facilities, services, and reading matter.

Spotlighting Vertical File Materials

But this article is designed primarily to spotlight vertical file materials as a somewhat neglected as well as potentially profitable source of enrichment. First of all, it should be recognized that vertical file materials, like many of the best things in life, are free or at least easily accessible. Their acceptance and

use is often only a matter of teacher interest and initiative.

We know that the beautiful colors of autumn are overlooked by many to whom they are most accessible. The intriguing sounds of nature are seldom identified and listened to with appreciation. The art treasures of our museums are not even thought of, let alone studied and enjoyed by the overwhelming majority of people. Even stimulating conversation with friends is often forsaken in favor of the more passive and expensive types of pleasure. In like fashion, there is a wealth of valuable instructional materials easily accessible to teachers, often at little or no cost. The puzzling thing is that such materials often are permitted to lie dormant when they would, properly used, heighten pupil interest and give greater depth of meaning to the subjects being studied.

What is the reason for this lack of use? Possibly many teachers are unfamiliar with these materials and their sources. Furthermore, it may be that time does not seem to be available for searching out and obtaining these materials. The main reason, however, probably lies in the lack of any systematic plan to classify and house the many items that teachers either already have or know about. If this is the case, the solution to the problem lies in the development of the classroom vertical file.

What Is A Vertical File?

A vertical file is simply what its name indicates. It is a system for filing pamphlets, booklets, etc., vertically—on edge. It is a system for housing certain learning materials which normally are stacked in cupboards or on shelves, item upon item, thus making accessibility to desired materials difficult and time consuming. It is a system of classifying

pamphlets, folded posters, bulletins, paper covered booklets, tearsheets, flat pictures, and clippings so that they may be quickly found according to designated labels. In other words, it is a *filing* system rather than a *piling* system.

Metal cabinets, with four drawers running on sliding rollers, are recommended for housing vertical-file materials. Many schools and offices are now using folders which can be suspended from a metal frame in the file drawer thus keeping the tabs on the folders at a horizontal level. It is also relatively efficient to use stiff cardboard dividers or manila folders with projecting tabs for labels. The weakness in this latter system, however, is that the tabs are likely to be at varying levels, thus making quick finding of the file headings more difficult.

If money is not available to purchase this commercial type of filing system, the teacher and children may prepare appropriately such containers as egg crates or orange cases. Some teachers have had children finish this "free" type of filing cabinet by sanding and painting it with a selected color. For dividers they used manila folders or some form of heavy cardboard that would stand upright in the filing box.

Developing the Vertical File

It seems essential that some form of a vertical file system be developed and that the materials be classified according to subject headings most favorable for classroom use. Within the limits of their maturity and ability, children should be called upon to obtain the materials, evaluate these materials, determine key terms for classification, write key terms on the materials (or use typed labels), and then place the materials correctly in the filing cabinet.

It should be recognized that most vertical file materials are likely to have been produced recently and thus are up to date. Probably the major type of material is that which may be called "sponsored." Such materials come from business, industry, government, and civic organizations. The values inherent in such materials, as well as cautions to be observed in their selection, will be discussed later on.

In addition to sponsored materials, however, it is evident that the vertical file will house many other materials available to the pupils in their homes and the classroom. For instance, some teachers have found it advisable to staple or bind tearsheets from discarded textbooks.* To illustrate, a story in a reader dealing with the subject of insects may be torn out and prepared for inclusion in the vertical file. Other commonly available materials include pictures from calendars, magazines, and newspapers. Frequently clippings from magazines and newspapers contain graphic aids and reading that might well be used time and again. The vertical file can house them as long as they are useful. Such items as the common road map, and especially the state highway maps can be housed in a vertical file and certainly no one would criticize their use in the classroom. Then, too, children often own informational booklets that no longer hold personal interest for them. These booklets, rather than being discarded, might find a useful place at some grade level in the school system.

One seldom-thought-of-value of vertical file materials lies in the dynamics which accompany something which is new and fresh in the daily routine of study. Oftentimes children will write

thoughtful businesslike letters requesting materials which fit the units or topics being studied. A visit from the mailman is as curiosity-developing to children as it is to adults. "What's in the package? Where did it come from?" The materials thus received are pretty likely to challenge the youngsters to fairly detailed study. This sort of enrichment beyond the textbook helps give purpose and meaning to learning.

Screening Vertical File Materials

It is obvious that free and inexpensive materials from industry and other organizations should not be used to promote the interests of private concerns, nor should they ever be permitted to foster causes which are not in the public interest. Teachers need to consider carefully the effect, good or bad, that the materials may have upon the pupils who use them. This means that some sort of screening plan should be devised so that all donated material (as well as that which is purchased) is admitted to schoolroom use only after its merits have been carefully judged.

It can be noted, however, that most sponsored materials today, prepared for classroom use, have little or no advertising or propaganda. Most of this material is in good taste, is authentic, gives more detail than can be found in the textbook, is up-to-date, and is written in an engaging style. Donors seem to be increasingly sensitive to the kind of materials desirable for young people to study, thus they carefully avoid introducing content or illustrations that could be justifiably criticized. They apparently recognize that an excessive amount of advertising or the promotion of an unacceptable cause will likely preclude

*An excellent device for giving tearsheets a simple, inexpensive binding is the U-File-M binders, obtainable from the U-File-M Binder Manufacturing Company, Inc., Syracuse, New York.

the use of their publications in the classrooms. A comparison of such materials with the advertising in current magazines will usually show quite a divergence in the "come on" approach.

A Critical Appraisal

Teachers should recognize that pupils in our schools are constantly confronted with many kinds of persuasive influences. Some of these influences come via radio and TV. Magazines and newspapers carry many articles and advertisements designed to influence the reader to think a certain way or to buy a specific product. If our children are to live thoughtfully and successfully in a world of persuasion, then it is up to society to help them make good judgments regarding what they hear and read, whether it be mildly slanted or strongly biased. Perhaps wise classroom guidance in the use of learning materials produced by industry and other organizations will help our young people make sounder judgments as to what is false, what is only half-truth, and what is true.

On the other hand, schools must be aware of, and understand, the arguments commonly offered against the use of sponsored materials in the classroom. A thoughtful appraisal of these arguments will not necessarily close the door to sponsored materials, but it should make teachers intelligent appraisers and users.

Perhaps the four most significant arguments are: (1) schools have no right to use any material which might help to promote a specific product, (2) schools must be "foolproofed" against the possibility of promoting ideas that may not be in the best interest of our society, (3) in some instances, the material is misleading, chiefly by pre-

senting false claims, half-truths, and incomplete information, and (4) the overuse of sponsored materials may steal time from other important aspects of the curriculum.

In all fairness, it should be recognized that there may be a case against certain sponsored materials. It seems, however, that an increasing number of schools feel that the value inherent in much of this material outweighs the possible hazards and disadvantages. Such schools avoid a closed-door policy, but at the same time set up effective guards to the admission of undesirable materials. Among the more important criteria by means of which these schools evaluate sponsored materials are: (1) all vertical file material should make a constructive contribution to the educational program of the school, (2) there should be no direct sales promotion or boastful, exaggerated claims, (3) the materials do not mislead by presenting false claims, half-truths and incomplete information. (However, some misleading material might have a place in a high school class where students are given guidance in critical analysis. Teachers should help young people to detect "phony" information in what they read and hear.), (4) the material is true to life and authentic, (5) in case of controversial issues, each side of the case is presented without bias, (6) the material is geared to the maturity and interest levels of the pupils, (7) the content is presented in readable style, having the marks of literary craftsmanship, (8) the illustrations are pertinent to the content; not merely eye-catchers that have little or no relationship to the subject, and (9) the material must not promote a product—even a good one—out of proportion to its merit. Here teachers should

help young people to become sensitive to "exaggerations."

The Vertical File in Action

In a sense, the vertical file contributes to learning in two different yet closely related ways. In the first place, the very act of searching out, obtaining, evaluating, classifying and filing is often an important series of learning experiences. As pupils pursue the study of a topic, it makes sense that their research points toward the discovery of learning materials not already available in the school. Thus, they look for pertinent magazine articles, pamphlets, and the like which may later deserve inclusion in the classroom vertical file.

Under the guidance of a teacher, these pupils will learn to critically evaluate what they discover. If the materials are of high merit, steps will be taken to decide on key classification terms; subsequently placing the materials appropriately in the vertical file. Thus it appears that in obtaining and servicing these materials there will be valuable concomitant learnings in such fields as interviews, business correspondence, geography, critical reading, alphabetizing, word choice, classification, and filing. Here it is the *process* of developing the file that is the contributor to learning.

The more commonly-thought-of-value of the vertical file, however, is in its use as a resource containing a wide range of information. For instance, a pamphlet *The Story of Rubber* may give

much more elaboration to the subject than would be possible in a geography textbook. Furthermore, the information may be more up-to-date and more fully illustrated.

The vertical file has resource value also in providing bulletin board materials such as pictures, charts, and diagrams. Many of these will not be found in textbooks, and if they were, the textbook illustrations would likely be on a much smaller scale.

Vertical file materials are useful, too, in meeting the needs and interests of individual pupils; they provide reading materials at varying difficulty levels and cover a wide range of interest. And when their needs and interests are met, children will "dig in," attacking their studies with sincerity and zeal.

It would be enlightening to visit a thousand classrooms, chosen at random, throughout the nation. Most of these classrooms would probably reveal a modest use of vertical file materials, but there would be found little attempt to obtain, classify, file, and use these materials in a systematic way. There would be a few sparkling classrooms, however, where the dynamics of current materials, as developed in the vertical file, would be infusing both teacher and pupils with purpose and an increasing desire to learn. Educators may well ask the question, "To what extent is a top-notch classroom vertical file a 'barometer' of good teaching and pupil achievement?"

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BOOK REVIEWS

THE SCHOOL TEACHERS. By A. Tropp. N. Y. Macmillan. 1957. \$4.50

American teachers will read with interest this carefully documented story of the growth of the teaching profession in England and Wales from 1800 to the present day. It is the heroic tale of the struggle of a professional group—the largest in England and Wales—to elevate their status against hostility, misunderstanding, and widespread indifference. Dr. Tropp focuses attention on the teachers themselves, on the ways in which they have been recruited and trained, their conditions of employment, their position on

the social structure, and their professional associations. The book is a worthy contribution to the history of education.—W. P. S.

GUIDANCE FOR TODAY'S SCHOOLS. By Charles R. Foster. N. Y. Ginn. 1957. \$5.00.

Guidance for Today's Schools was written to help teachers-in-training and those in service to understand and utilize the guidance potential of the school and community. The book seeks to give the teacher and the student an appreciation of what guidance means, what it can accomplish and how it can contribute to the growth and happiness of the pupil by helping him to orient himself toward his future role of citizen and parent. The text is divided into fourteen chapters, all of which contribute to the stated aims of the volume. The book proposes a system of organization that draws upon the total resources of the community and stresses the broad implications of guidance. An excellent text for a course in guidance and the classroom teacher.

—William P. Sears

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What's the Difference?

By ANN ESS MORROW

Pontiac High School

Pontiac, Michigan

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES are found in teachers, as well as in boys and girls. Thus the subject has a dual approach.

Dual Approach Stressed

Boys and girls are quick to note the varying of personalities, the fluctuation in standards and techniques, the differences in evaluation, since much of this part of teaching is subjective like an essay test. They realize that in one teacher they have conscientiousness; in another, authoritarianism; in still another, understanding. And they gauge themselves accordingly, for adaptation is a quality of youth.

In Mr. Smith's class they dare not argue; in Miss Richard's, they freely discuss; in Mr. Arnold's where the academic fence is high, they must stay within the bounds of daily subject matter; in Mrs. Thompson's room, the flexibility is great. If a story of religion leads them to visit a synagogue or to have a pastor as their guest or to interview a priest, there are no barriers to keep them within the confines of pages 21 to 25. Often, too, the boys and girls voice these differences—proclaim them to the teachers boldly. "In Mrs. Clark's room we did it THIS way," and the statement is made in such a manner as to suggest that students who have never known the jurisdiction of Mrs. Clark just have not lived, or living, have but short time to endure. But soon they

come to realize that no teacher likes to have another one constantly quoted, and once again, adjustment takes place.

If, in turn, teachers showed the same degree of recognition of those differences which are so definitely a part of human nature, and adapted their academic behavior to the students whom they guide, a more healthy classroom atmosphere might prevail. Surely the very essence of America is individualism. Where then should this be more readily acknowledged than in the schools?

Fear of Differences Felt

Often teachers fear this range of differences, not only because of the academic problems that ensue from such a situation, but because of the fact that it may be used by others as a criterion of teaching, and that it will reflect unfavorably upon them. They think of diversity as a handicap, rather than a resource. Actually, however, this range of differences which definitely widens as boys and girls advance scholastically is a true indication that children have been taught with wisdom, not with carelessness. Physical differences we meet everywhere in normal children. Why, then, should we be reluctant to admit that mental differences exist as well? Can it be, perhaps, that we realize that the task of gearing education to the child is a professional problem in the solution of which we feel ourselves more or less inadequate?

One Set of Standards Prevails

First, there are teachers who show no heed—who make each child lie upon the same Procrustean bed of education. "Educators made the bed," they state with firm inaccuracy. "Now let the children lie on it." And what can victims do?

Those who would overreach the confines of their grades have their impulses chopped off promptly. In this particular grade one does not delve into the area which is reserved for next semester; adherence to a curricular calendar is adamant here.

The other type of misfit concerns those of understature. Their limited abilities are stretched beyond endurance, and interest fast expires in the pain of reaching goals that literally lie beyond.

For the lucky few who really fit, there is promotion upwards.

Thus a bunk-bed type of education prevails—with emphasis on the first part of the compound word. Truly in this sort of situation the teacher, as well as the student, lies down on the job at a time when innerspring is needed to overcome a sagging interest.

So much, then, for the teacher who sees no differences and who tends to turn out an assembly line sort of product. She forgets many facts—among them, that some children frighten easily. They come to her for help they do not get, and bunny-hop back to their desks, their poor little participles dangling. *Unknowingly*, she is creating potential drop-outs, for no one likes to continue long in areas in which he meets consistent failure.

Complication Caused by One Set of Standards

Other teachers recognize these differing factors, but also meet the problem

ineffectually. They become so steeped in the principles of democracy that one set of standards prevails. They do not see the fallacy in the concept that all men are created equal. Certainly boys and girls are not—or women, either. Thus their overlooking of individual differences creates differences with individuals—and sometimes these become so serious that the holding power of the school is jeopardized.

Differences Often Ignored

What's the difference? A real teacher knows. She realizes through a testing program and through keen observation that Billy reads on third grade level, while Alice, across the aisle, proceeds at seventh. She sees the evidence and acts on her convictions: she scowls at him and smiles at her—and promptly eliminates herself from the true teacher category.

Her problems increased by stationary chairs, by crowded quarters, by dusty concepts, by rigid administration, she attempts to keep the busy busier and the not-so-busy quiet. Let no one think a noisy room is hers. A tomb-stone silence prevails here. And busy sounds of natural learning situations cannot enter in. Nor can initiative. Thus she recognizes individual differences, and stops right there.

Varied Performance at One Level Discussed

Again, teachers democratically prescribe the same assignment for everybody, but expect varying degrees of performance—the fast ones to chant while the average pant. Obviously, the slow ones can't. But "What's the difference?" she asks herself. Let the speedy ones glide—the slow group can ride on the efforts of the big wheels. Many

teachers think they solve it this way. And they coast along with conscience comfortably assuaged at thus paying difference deference.

Easy Way Chosen

Many teachers, who first wear question-mark looks suggestive of the button-hook era, smile in parentheses as they realize that these differences exist. Yet they continue as if this realization were not theirs. If one acts upon the recognition of this, it involves all the versatility of an experienced orchestra leader, of one who is able to play with ease on all instruments and produce simultaneously a great symphony of academic sound. Most of us find it easier to be a one-instrument piper or a vocalist. It is no circus—the obligation that arises from difference recognition, though it calls for at least a three-ring system of planning. Too much effort is involved in compiling a variety of reading material and project possibilities, in making an intensive study of boys and girls, in bringing courses of study up to date with flexibility and the meeting of needs uppermost.

This can all be avoided if one sails a traditional course with the wake at a minimum and the sleepy all at sea. Many a teacher finds it difficult to mix, yet not confuse. Yet there is a difficult problem—to find one level of difficulty appropriate for most, usable by the slow, and stimulating for the fast. Ponce de Leon and Diogenes initiated searches too.

Use of Abilities Grouping

In some schools the problem is solved through the use of abilities grouping. Having studied children and conducted tests that indicate interest, abilities, and readiness, the teachers classify the students. But perhaps because we live in an

age of specialization, they tend to find it easier to work at one level only. So Mrs. Drew will keep only her fast readers in her room that period, receiving simultaneously the fast readers from other rooms at the same grade-level. Her slow ones go to Mr. Gray, whose outlook grows as colorless as his name in the monotony of students sent to him. Easier teaching thus results with only one level of planning called for, but all the familiar questions as to homogeneous grouping crop up once again. Is there adequate stimulation for teacher and students? Is there a fostering of status consciousness? Is there sufficient justification for this so-called artificial grouping? Whether one answers these affirmatively or negatively, the problem of administration still remains a big one. For it involves a scheduling of classes, similar and simultaneous, often within a big department, and in large schools, where many, many people are involved, this is really difficult.

Same Subject Matter Offered at Different Levels

The problem of differences, too, is often partially solved by the use of the same reading material on different levels, the book chosen being suited to the needs and interests of the class. Thus Johnny, reading slowly, is comforted to realize he is dealing with the same content material as Mary, who wings effortlessly over the pages. The satisfaction he derives in gaining meaning from the printed symbols, in unlocking mysteries that all too long have bothered him, tends to offset any stigma he might feel at having to read it at lower level. His great need is to meet success, and the questions he is asked concerning this must be those that he can answer if he is to build a liking for the subject.

This factor of human interest is indeed unique, for even as difficulty tends to increase with the rise of new words, density of ideas, complexity of sentences, it tends to decrease with the rise of human interest. This fact the effective teacher must always act upon, for the ultimate problems of education are practical, like rubbers on a rainy day—its ends, absolute like postage stamps. This method, then, has its merits, yet at the present time much literature does not come to us in multi-level manner. Until it does, the teacher, then, is limited materially.

Variety in Goals Suggested

Another method is found effective by those who would confine themselves to certain books. It concerns the setting up of different goals within the room, and is favored by many who teach well. In the hands of the adept, it is good; in the hands of the inexperienced, it is not. For the teacher must proceed from group to group, keeping them all challenged at their own level, never letting them know the bafflement of attempting what they cannot do. And through it all, she must maintain an atmosphere of orderliness that is not necessarily silence; she must lure them into enthusiastic pursuit of goals established through animated pupil-teacher planning.

Tests on the various levels are given simultaneously so that boys and girls will not experience feelings of inferiority or superiority. Here again, concerning different levels, teachers tend to be reluctant, for after all, the work of making out exams is tripled at least, and most of us rebel at this. Yet the true teacher sees the accompanying increase in values gained—the satisfactions and the favorable attitudes that spring from being able to answer accurately ques-

tions for which one is prepared.

Truly it is vital that the teacher build favorable attitudes, for she realizes that the age in which we live has more service occupations at the present time than producing occupations—and that therefore more people have to read and talk effectively. Thus she launches a systematic attack upon the printed symbols.

Application to Elementary Level

At elementary level, some authorities propose a basic program for the average, an enrichment program for the bright—dramatics, hobbies, puppetry, independent reading—and a special needs program for the slow—possibly auditory discrimination or the interpreting of sentences. Individual needs must always be met, however, in any form of grouping, and often the teacher finds that the very bright have areas, too, in which they need special help—perhaps in phonics or in comprehension skills. Dr. Artley of the University of Missouri favors this method. The slow group follows the same general pattern—a longer time on basics, followed at slower pace by some degree of enrichment, and by special needs. It is important that these special needs be met at a time when fast readers are busy, however, so that no one misses a class activity he would otherwise enjoy. No good teacher wants her children to feel deprived or depraved!

Application to Secondary Level

At secondary level, Miss Collins, who enjoys the challenges that teaching presents, might have her slow group concentrate on content material, the next group list human truths found in the story and develop one into a well written paragraph, while her fast group reads the story and uses dictionary skills to

trace word origins and to make lists of synonyms and antonyms and to study shades of meanings. All are brought together and friendly feelings are established during that part of the period when boys and girls share their findings. The essential part is that everyone feel an eagerness to tell and show. For Miss Collins, it is like matching a two-column question on an objective test, for hers is the job of matching material to each reader's abilities, interests, and mental maturity—a task truly Herculean.

Challenge Given to Writers at Adult Level

Even at adult level, the problem remains. We must pick no bones with Mrs. Jones if the magazines she reads are a bit on the lurid side. Let her reach for true love-lore instead of a classic, but only until folks recognize and answer the need for simply written books on serious subjects—books which aim to interest adults who are better in fields other than reading. Here is an area in individual differences that beckons for writers, for it is almost as unexplored as the area of poetry for adolescents.

Unit Method Popular

The unit method, too, serves as an answer in many instances to the matter of differences. The entire class launches upon the study of one specific piece of literature, and individual interests culminate in various projects which the boys and girls choose to do. In the pursuit of these projects, they proceed at levels appropriate to meet their own needs and interests and capabilities.

Project Method Favored by Many

In its broader sense, however, the project method receives great favor. Through the skillful guidance of the teacher, the individual selects a subject

in which he shows a real and growing interest, a subject worthy of a concentrated effort that sometimes lasts for many weeks. Clear and well-defined, it becomes the object of an intensive study that involves all four of the language arts on a level best suited to the student. Pursuing this dominating interest, he experiences varied activities in areas of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. His personality tends to expand at his own recognition that he has become to some degree a self-made classroom authority on his chosen subject. He learns the values of library skills, couples interest with increasing respect as he comes to realize the true significance of the project he is in the process of developing.

The teacher, too, learns like the boys and girls as she ferrets out new materials subsequently supplemented by them. She makes available new approaches and gains new understanding of the boys and girls through the teacher-pupil conferences necessitated by this method. She knows that Mary, in her study of family relations, should begin at *Little Women* level, that *Forsyte Saga* depths are not for her. The teacher fairly bulges with bibliographies, and knows levels like a geologist. Let anyone ask that teacher, "What's the difference?" and she'll tell him. More than that, she'll explain what she's doing about it.

New Respect Shown Profession

Thus the public tends to become aware, little by little, of the vast versatility of the role of a teacher—diagnostician, classroom physician, daytime parent, extra-curricular participant, clerical worker, friendly guide, and philosopher. And with the growing of this realization, the status of a profession once belittled continues to rise.

What Parents Should Know About *the* Retarded Reader

By MARY H. B. WOLLNER

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I

Parents Need to Know that failure in reading is specific, not due to a child's *lack of intelligence*.

ONE OF THE first things we find out from parents who bring their children, usually pupils from second through seventh grade, to the Rockford College Reading Clinic for help is whether or not the child is succeeding reasonably well in school subjects other than reading. If so, and if the child shows in our screening tests an intellectual capacity that is average or better, we can assure the parents that their youngster may indeed be what we call a retarded reader. It is *not* "he can't read, he's dumb." It is "he's intelligent, but he hasn't been able to learn to read."

Since failure to learn to read may be traced to any number of causes, such as slight neurological damage to language centers in the brain, faulty language development, or poor early teaching, we are concerned about discovering in a particular child the clues to his difficulty. With an understanding of the probable causes of the child's reading failure, a tutor can undertake at once the necessary reading training. Teachers and parents need no longer blame the child for not learning, or for being stubborn ("he could do better, if he just would"), dull, lazy, inattentive, or slow, but can set about providing the environ-

ment in which that particular child will learn.

The second important thing we find out about the child is whether he learns anything on his own:—does he have a hobby, a collection, an interest in painting, music, or construction work? If the youngster shows power of concentration and self-direction in any area which demands an accumulation of materials, an organization of facts, memory work, planning, creative thinking, we feel,—and we try to help parents to feel,—that he is potentially capable of learning to read. It is highly probable that he simply has not yet been reached by the teaching approaches used in his classrooms.

Sometimes it appears that what a child teaches himself he learns well enough, but he struggles in the effort to learn what a teacher is teaching him. Other times a pupil will be effortful and attentive to class work and will be able to pass from grade to grade because he remembers facts from the recitations of other pupils, even though he cannot read them for himself.

The hope that a child will become a good reader, when proper teaching methods are applied, is greater if he has strong hobby interests. According to a recent study of adults, those with hobbies tend to read significantly more than those without.

II

Parents Need to Know that failure in reading is linked to failure in growing up

The parents help us to examine the retarded reader's total outside-of-school life. How mature and independent is he about playing with other children on his block, about caring for his personal and body needs, about managing his time and his money? If the child seems self-sufficient and makes to-be-expected strides in all areas of growing up except learning to read, then, obviously, he is suffering from a specific "accidental" failure and needs to be tutored at once in order to bring this reading up to his total maturity level.

If, on the other hand, our exploration shows the child to be clinging, babyish, dependent beyond what one would expect for a boy or girl of his or her age, then this helps us to understand why his learning to read has been delayed. We talk over with the parents the child's need for *feeling* like "growing up" before he can tackle the reading task with zeal and confidence. Two steps then are usually suggested:

1. that the parents encourage all signs of healthy independence and growing up on the child's part. This does not mean pushing him suddenly out of the nest. But it does mean allowing him to explore his neighborhood wherever safe, engage increasingly in unsupervised play, manage a small allowance, take buses alone, if possible. It also means rewarding with praise all evidences on the child's part of accepting responsibility and carrying it through.

2. that the parents and school provide for specific remedial help in the area of reading, in which the child will receive genuine encouragement for the steps he takes to become an independent

learner. There will be no "pushing." The child will be started at the reading level in which he is perfectly comfortable, no matter how far below his present grade placement this may be, and he will be allowed to pace himself. This relaxation of pressures added to generous praise for progress proves extremely successful in most cases of reading retardation.

III

Parents Need to Know that failure in reading is linked to feelings about competition, at home and at school.

Another area of inquiry which the reading clinic staff and the parents make together is into the matter of competition and sibling rivalry. Over half of our children suffer from feelings of defeat which show up in relation to older or younger brothers or sisters and to other children in school. This sense of defeat attaches itself to the subject of reading, and a child caught in this feeling is "licked before he starts." Unfortunately, this is one of the areas in which we are able to give parents the least practical help. Parents themselves are usually aware of the jealousy on the part of the defeated, non-reading child, but often the situation is one which does not seem to permit a change. There it is, they tell us. Some other child in the family appears to succeed readily in this admired skill of reading. Reading success is important, it is the key to all other school work. Nothing can really make it up to the child who is failing. Parents are frequently deeply sympathetic. One father kept saying, "But my little boy is the fastest runner in his class." This well-meant attempt on the father's part to speak with pride of another accomplishment, far from being

reassuring to the son, twisted the knife in his wound. It emphasized strongly the fact, which every child senses from his very first day at school: Reading is all-important. Nothing carries prestige like being a good reader.

Our advice to parents tries to take into account the truth that children are never fooled. They know where they stand when they fail in something so important in our society as the subject of reading. So we cannot try to fool them, as this only makes matters worse. It is cruel to say, "Janice gets good marks in school, but you should see Henry bat the ball." As soon as we really see and know how children feel, how much they care, even under a pose of "devil-may-care," as soon as both parents recognize that a child of theirs is suffering deeply and sometimes excruciatingly from his feelings of inadequacy, their own feelings and their own behavior will undergo a subtle change which helps relieve the situation. Thoughtless kidding stops, for one thing. What we should like to see stop—in families in which there is a retarded reader—is all mention for a few months of the word "reading." So far, this is Utopian, and parents are the first to admit, ruefully, that they cannot control their "And how did you get along in your reading today?"

The word "reading" can become so loaded with failure for certain children in the primary and middle grades that the constant questioning of adults must be considered just as cruel and ill-mannered as if we should ask a child who has had polio "How does it seem to have one leg shorter than the other?"

In line with current mental hygiene thinking, we are inclined to believe that the retarded reader who feels or acts rebellious about his failure is better off than the conforming, effortful, feverish-

ly conscientious pupil. When we hear parents and teachers say, "He tries so hard!" we wonder whom he is trying so hard to please. Some adult? Never will he learn to read by trying to please someone else. Unless he can please *himself* by reading, then all our efforts and time and expense will be in vain. Reading is thinking, it is independent thinking. Only when a learner desires to find out something for himself through the medium of the printed page can he get near to reading, for only then do his efforts to read make sense. He must be relatively free of strain,— especially the strain of competition.

For the already defeated child, to be in the "dumb reading group"—to observe constantly the superior efficiency of his classmates— how they finish the page of reading ahead of him, read aloud fluently, work the workbook questions speedily, put down their pencils ahead of him—all this is intolerable and a hindrance to the self-forgetfulness essential to learning. We recommend, therefore, that the pupil be temporarily removed from competition in the reading situation. That each school day, at the time of his reading lesson, he be taken out of the room and worked with independently. At first it is usually wise if the remedial teacher can give the retarded reader undivided attention alone. After a while, if he has shown success, he may be able to progress with a small class of other readers at his same reading level.

IV

Parents Need to Know that failure in reading is a problem for specialists and teachers; the parent cannot help at home. Objectivity and self-respect are needed for remedial progress.

Once a proper program of remedial

help for a child has been set up and engaged upon, let the parent relax and enjoy the child at home. Play games with him, sing together, cook together, watch television together. The strain of trying to help a child pick up in reading when he has fallen seriously behind provides too great a tension for good parent-child relations. And the effort and patience on the part of the parent soon reaches a breaking point so that the genuine parental indignation shines through with "Why can't you learn?" or "Why are you so stupid, we just learned that word yesterday." or "You know that word, now just get it. I'm not going to help you." This breaking of patience tends to throw the child way back to an earlier and more dependent stage of existence. It promotes a growing backwards toward babyhood instead of the necessary growing forward. We advise strongly against any form of home help in families of reading failures.

Parents often say: "But what about spelling lists? He can't do it unless we help him." If there is a spelling list each week which corresponds to the child's grade level, and his reading level is below his placement, then obviously he isn't able to read the words. And, if he can't read them, he can't spell them. However, we have recently encountered a few parents who intelligently recognize the unequal struggle their retarded reader is having and have entered into a sort of conspiracy with the youngster. They help him to drill on his spelling list, that is to learn the list by rote, mechanically, with the mutual understanding that they are memorized simply for the Friday spelling test, with no expectation that they will carry over into any future reading. We believe that little harm is done, and—if the good spelling marks are frankly faced as

"morale-builders" — some good may come of the added insight on the part of parents and children as to what learning really consists of.

There is nothing mysterious about true learning. It takes place all the time but, like all creative processes, it is more likely to be in the form of spontaneous combustion than to be the response to methodical coercion. There is no absence of drudgery in scholarship, but it is a drudgery willingly or consciously entered into by the learner for a purpose intrinsic to the work. A donkey may (according to legend) plod ahead, hungry or not, for the carrot kept dangling just out of his reach. But a child who, at elementary grade levels shows specific reading disability, is invariably smarter than a donkey. He learns to read only by reading (which means with a purpose and while thinking), never by being offered dollars, bicycles, trips to the zoo, or "good marks." The very first thing we do in the reading laboratory is to take away all false inducements and all false hopes. There is no magic formula. Reading as a process and a task has to make sense to our pupils or they do not make progress. It simply cannot be entered into mechanically. The student must see the point of each exercise, each drill, each activity in reading training. Some one—here it is the reading tutor or teacher—must have enough respect for the child to explain why certain procedures are necessary. The tutor leaves nothing to chance. She doesn't fool the pupil. She attempts from the very beginning to restore his self-respect and a very important aspect of his total character—his ability to face his own failure.

The day that our clinic pupil says "I need to work on this now." is a jubilant one for us, because we recognize

the beginnings of self evaluation, facing of self in reality, and self-propelled learning—and we say “He is well on his way.” The child who politely or simply sits and takes the tutor’s direction has a long way to go. We bring to bear a battery of techniques designed to encourage the child to express an opinion or a judgment of his own, take a strong stand about something and assume the initiative in his work.

Parents tell us they soon see signs of independence in various activities of their children:—in managing money, playing with other children, going on errands to the store, selecting library books. One mother of a clinic child reported proudly, “He took out three books and he said, ‘These two I can read myself. This one will be hard’.” This means the child sees his own difficulties but is no longer defeated by them. He is displaying a willingness to go through the hard work necessary to overcome them. The remedial clinic helps the child face his reading difficulties and then helps him plan the remedial work—in short, digestible segments, step by step.

V

Parents Need to Realize the relationship between reading failure and teaching in school.

Parents need to know that much reading failure can be overcome in a stimulating classroom, but that some disability of this nature will need special corrective measures under a trained teacher; the child will have to be taught alone or in small groups. Among the common misconceptions about reading failures are that the school is to blame for them. Intelligent reflection will promote the realization that this can be so in only a percentage of cases. In a

famous study of severely retarded readers, poor learning situations played a part in only a small number of cases, whereas situations described as “environmental, physical, and emotional” played much larger roles in explaining why the children were slow in learning to read up to their capacity. The school is only one factor in the total environment and the promotional policies of schools are unbelievably intertwined with other aspects of our whole pattern of society, notably our demands for tangible evidence of success.

Among parents’ common questions is the one—“Shouldn’t children be taught phonics earlier?” This is a world-wide controversy and cannot be settled simply. The teaching of phonics is one thing in a country whose native language will yield its secrets to children knowing a half-dozen phonic units, such as *ma*, *no*, *la*, *tu* and so on; it is quite another matter in an English-speaking country, especially in the United States of America. Most schools today are trying to introduce sensible programs of instruction which include the methods of word attack most successfully used by a majority of English-speaking children. Psychologists usually maintain that children are imitative of language but unable to take an interest in phonics (the structure of words) until they are at least ten years old.

Many experienced teachers say that phonics do the most good for children over the age of twelve who are having particular difficulty with spelling. Experiments in the teaching of reading lead us to believe that undue emphasis on alphabet procedures and phonics in early years can cause reading failure more often than cure it.

In spite of all “golden age” fairy tales to the contrary, children in other ages

and other climates did not read better than children of today. The poor readers and the complete non-readers written off as unteachable, just dropped out of school and were never heard from again. In our country we are making at present the most concerted effort to promote literacy on the part of all pupils that any educational system has ever made. We are making some mistakes and hope to identify and correct them soon. One of these mistakes may be in the area of beginning teaching:

- a. We may be beginning our instruction too young
- b. We may be going about it the wrong way
- c. We may be underestimating the power to learn to read more difficult and more truly literary selections on the part of grade school children.

Parents have a right to get in the controversy. It would seem to me that their special need is to find the best "learning environment" possible for all the children in their family, but in particular for the child who has difficulty with the "subject" of reading. What would that best learning environment be?

- a. Probably a school in which reading was not taught as a "subject" but as a means to an end.

- b. A school or classroom in which the teachers have a friendly control of the class as well as a skill for getting children to work enthusiastically and to finish what they start.

- c. A classroom with maximum emphasis on meaningful and creative learning, minimum emphasis on coercion and on meaningless "busy work".

Sometimes the parents of a child suffering from reading failure have to shop around for such a school. We have seen

several instances of improvement in learning on the part of pupils whose parents and principals have worked together to secure a favorable classroom situation, or where a change of teachers has placed the youngster in the care of a teacher who combines patient skill with friendly encouragement.

It is important for parents to know that for children with a hard row to hoe in learning to read, teacher personality means much more than teaching method. A teacher with the right approach means a teacher who can communicate confidence and inspire a measure of independence. She may use phonics or she may not. It is important that whatever method she uses, it be one about which she is thoroughly convinced. The conviction has to seep through to the pupils.

VI

There is danger

in misconceptions about reading and over-emphasis on reading failures.

Moreover, it is important for parents to realize that there is some danger in the current over-emphasis on "failure" to learn to read—on the whole reading complex—in our minds, even in such an article as this. Nothing is more talked about, studied, written about, or read about in educational subjects than reading failure. Our national anxiety has to have something to fix itself on, and when it gets a little tired of worrying about taxes and wars, it worries about children who aren't learning to read. This very concern communicates itself subtly to children and adds to their own burden of worry about growing up. The aura of prestige attached to success in reading (attested by a good mark on the report card) is overwhelming and frustrating a large percentage of teachers and pupils. Normal, healthy child-

ren burst into tears in first grade when they realize they haven't mastered the primer which their classmates have completed. The sorrow begins earlier in some cases—it only deepens as the primary years continue and the youngster sits continually with the "slow readers," the "Bluebirds," or "Marcia's group."

This goes far to explain most failures. The sense of having to live up to something which is expected of them, which is tied up with their acceptance at home, which is often linked inescapably with the social status of the whole family. Parents have said to me, "He just can't flunk second grade, because the little girl next door, who isn't anywhere near as bright as he is, is going into third grade!"

VII

Parents Should Know that reading failure is the lot of boys more than of girls in the proportion of 9 to 1, and that many theories are afloat to try to explain this disproportion.

Some psychologists are testing a theory which is popularly known to parents as "little girls talk first and never shut up," namely the obviously greater language facility of girls. Some educators are dismayed by the fact that 98% of American school teachers in the elementary grades are women. Women may be able to communicate to other females but not successfully teach males, or perhaps our little boys from the ages of birth to twelve have too much "momism" and fight what seems to them feminine encroachment in part by unconsciously resisting attempts on the part of females to teach them to read. Our success with some small boy reading clinic pupils is often rapid when we place them with a male tutor. This, of course, depends upon the strength of the retardation and

the length of time the failure has been felt. Boys in our culture do have to fight the subtle folk fiction that good literature is "sissy" and do not often have the support of competent male teachers to help them fight it. If they could hear a man's voice reading and teaching them spelling and poetry, perhaps fewer boys would refuse to learn.

Little boys' growth shows a different cadence from that of little girls—they are as much as one or two years slower in maturing; and parents should know that, after the adolescent spurt in growth, some boys develop a spurt of learning and an enthusiasm for reading. Then, if they have not been too depressed by petticoat domination or made too fearful and discouraged by their record of slow learning, they may make up for lost time with unheralded and astonishing speed.

VIII

Parents Need to Know that each child is an individual.

Parents in possession of all these points of view have still to consider the "individuality" of their own children. Each reading failure is a pattern unique and different from every other. In cases of severe disability, it is wise to consult a Reading Center or Child Guidance Clinic where diagnostic testing can be made and appropriate remedial measures provided. The testing includes tests of mental ability and of reading capacity (that is—"how well he would read if he were able to read?") and tests of actual reading status. The remediation, as well as the testing, should always be administered by trained teachers under the direction of a clinical psychologist or a reading specialist. If the individual pattern of difficulty includes a great amount of emotionality,

as it very often does, then we must decide with the parents whether reading help is indicated at once or whether the core of a child's disturbances must first be reached before he can be taught to read better. The clues to understanding how well your child will respond to reading clinic help are not always easy to find, and we ask sometimes that the diagnostic program of testing include projective tests—usually "picture-story" tests—in which the child reveals something of the nature of his inner conflicts which may be blocking his learning.

Last of all, the most up-to-date reading clinics provide parents with a continuous guidance in the form of (a) informal conferences concerning the progress of the child, and (b) group meetings of parents devoted to gaining and sharing information and reassurance about the nature of reading disabilities and "how it feels to be a retarded reader."

In Summary

Parents should know that

1. failure in reading is specific, not due to a child's lack of general intelligence.
2. failure in reading is linked to failure in growing up.
3. failure in reading is linked to feelings about competition, at home and at school.
4. failure in reading is a problem for specialists and teachers; the parents cannot help at home.
5. there is a relationship between reading failure and the quality of school teaching; parents should work for improved school environments.
6. there is danger in misconceptions about reading and overemphasis on reading failure.
7. failure in reading is the normal lot of boys rather than of girls.
8. each child is an individual; in case of failure, the wise parent will consult a qualified diagnostician.

Bureau of Ednl. & Psyl. I.
(S. C. E. R. T.)

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BOOK REVIEW

TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ. By Lillian Gray and Dora Reese. Second Edition. N. Y. Ronald Press. 1957. \$5.50.

This is the second edition of a very useful book that first appeared in 1949. It is a sound and practical approach to the problem of guiding a child's reading through the school years. The volume is designed as a text for teachers and students in courses in the teaching of elementary and secondary school reading, and as a guide for the classroom teacher and the reading specialist. The authors stress the fact that the chief goal of reading instruction is to promote personal development. Part One explains the important role reading plays in life and school, discusses methods and reforms in teaching

reading, shows the need for guidance in developing reading skills, and demonstrates the influence reading has on a child's personality, adjustment, and character. Part Two studies the situations encountered before the child reads and it explains the importance of reading readiness. The third part details the basic program of reading instruction for elementary and secondary grades. The final section treats such additional aspects of the reading program as remedial reading in the classroom, recreational reading, and the appraising of reading growth. Teachers and reading consultants will find much that is useful in this comprehensive volume.—

Paul Zankowich

Bureau of Ednl. & Psyl. I.

Dated

No

Reading Instruction Throughout *the* High School Curriculum

By ROBERT W. STRICKLER

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MOST OF OUR secondary school teachers readily acknowledge the existence of a reading problem among the students they teach. Evidence of its varied aspects and of its serious proportions appear almost daily, and in many instances the teacher quite properly concludes that an individual boy or girl faces failure in algebra, American history, bookkeeping, or whatever the particular subject because of an inability to read. Most frequent—and seemingly shared throughout the high school faculties—are the complaints that John or Mary can't "follow printed directions", "outline", "summarize"; nor can he "understand words" or find information in printed form or "relate what he reads to a particular question". In all probability some of these non-readers or extremely poor readers have always been enrolled in our schools; today, however, their number has grown to the extent that the good reader seems to be the exception rather than the rule. Whatever the reason for their deficiencies, the high school students who read at a low grade level, who command a limited vocabulary, who rank at a low percentile in speed and comprehension of reading constitute a threat to the realization of the objectives of all secondary school teachers.

The problem appears particularly acute when the school is without a

formal program of remedial and developmental reading to which the teacher can either turn for aid or refer the student. Affording an opportunity for individual vocabulary enrichment, development of phrase recognition, improvement of oral and silent reading habits and providing instruction in reading for comprehension, association, and organization, this specialized service is desperately needed in all of our high schools. It is infrequently found, however, other than in the larger schools and even then the entire responsibility for its functioning may be borne by one teacher alone.

It would seem then realistic to suggest that reading instruction is proper throughout the secondary school curriculum and that each teacher must not only acknowledge a responsibility for the improvement of reading but also function within his particular instructional area as a teacher of reading.

There is no merit in the proposal that each member of the faculty teach his particular subject *and* teach reading in the sense that the one is exclusive of the other and that reading instruction is simply *another* job to do. Such an interpretation is a misinterpretation of the role of the teacher. The aim of the teaching process is to assist the individual in the development of the intellectual and moral virtues inherent in the per-

son. Thus, teaching is a means to an end; and in order that the learner may develop intellectually and morally, the teacher clears every approach of obstacles that block such development. If a reading deficiency impedes the student's development as he studies within a particular area or as he engages in an activity, it is the responsibility of the teacher to provide the help necessary to overcome that deficiency. Whether the student is occupied in the area of science or mathematics or languages or commerce or homemaking is inconsequential. An inability to read applies to all areas of the curriculum and the responsibility for meeting the problem belongs to all teachers. Perhaps a long stride toward improving the reading of our secondary school students might be taken if the teaching in our secondary schools reflected a positive reaction to these basic questions asked of all teachers.

DOES MY TEACHING ACKNOWLEDGE THE FACT THAT EACH STUDENT IS UNIQUE IN RESPECT TO THE LEVEL AT WHICH HE NOW READS AND IN RESPECT TO HIS POTENTIALITY FOR IMPROVEMENT?

Among the secondary school students who attend our classes, there are represented practically all of the gradations upon any reading scale the teacher may choose to use. Whether the measurement is of command of vocabulary, rate of reading, reading interest, reading comprehension, amount of reading, or reading habits, the normal and heterogeneous group will evidence a range from one extreme to the other. Indicative of such variation is the study by Traxler¹ of some 9,672 high school students. Examined on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, these students by classes

showed the median scores of 167.9, 175.2, 181.2, and 187.2 for the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades respectively, a steady increase in this regard. However, most significant is his finding that the range of scores for each group was essentially the same: 117-215 for the 9th grade students, 125-215 for those of the 10th grade, 122-219 for those of the 11th grade, and 125-217 for those of the 12th grade.

Although each of our students is reading at his particular and individual level, in varying degrees the potentiality for improvement is common to all. If it is important that the teacher know the reading level of each student, it is just as important that he acknowledge the ability of all of his students to improve their reading. It has been pointed out that "Everyone can improve his reading in some respect . . . (and even the gifted children.) . . . have not reached their potentialities; they can improve in study methods, reading efficiency, reading tastes, and appreciation and application of what they read."² Regardless of the grade level at which he reads, regardless of the vocabulary he commands, regardless of the percentile at which a test of speed of reading or of level of comprehension places him, regardless of where this individual boy or girl is at the time he begins his work, he *can* improve his reading in some respect.

The implication for the teacher of the secondary school subject is obvious. The point of origin in regard to the required reading is the particular level at which the individual student reads. For the further development of his ability to read, the teacher must work from that point, from that particular level. Textbooks and related printed material must be varied in terms of vocabulary, of difficulty of comprehension, and of em-

phasis; reading assignments and class reading must be individualized in regard to the same points of reference; visual aids and personal experience must be capitalized upon in order to personalize the reading which is done. Above all, the boy or girl must experience the satisfaction of reading successfully. When asked repeatedly to read beyond his particular reading level, when the student *tries* to read beyond that level, the result is incomprehensibility, defeat, apathy, and outright antagonism toward the subject, the teacher, the school, and toward reading in general.

DO MY STUDENTS RECEIVE THE EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION IN ACQUIRING A VOCABULARY, IN PREVIEWING READING MATERIAL, IN READING FLUENTLY AND CRITICALLY, AND IN ASSIMILATING THE READING MATERIAL WHICH IS BASIC TO PROFICIENT READING IN A CRITICAL FASHION?

Proper study throughout the secondary school curriculum is basically a problem of reading in a critical fashion the related printed material. For the student to read critically, and thereby to comprehend, remember, and organize what he reads, he is dependent upon explicit instruction which should be provided not in an incidental manner but as an integral part of the teaching process.

The teacher must aid his students in acquiring the vocabulary which is peculiar to the field of study. Miss Gwen Horsman, supervisor of reading in the Detroit public schools, has described the science teacher's responsibility in regard to the science vocabulary in a fashion applicable to every subject area: "It is up to early reading teachers to help children develop an ability to read and

assimilate words, but it is up to the teacher of each later specific course to teach them to read those specific textbooks and to understand them. The science vocabulary is a difficult one, and the science teacher has the responsibility of teaching her pupils to read that specific vocabulary. She must not expect her pupils' earlier teachers to have accomplished that."³ Each subject has its own technical language and phrases that are used in a context found only in that subject, and the teacher, exercising the art he possesses, must teach that particular vocabulary.

The teacher must aid his students in developing the ability to preview the reading material. Proficient reading in a critical fashion demands such practice for two purposes: to indicate to the reader the major points which will be covered and to raise questions in the mind of the reader. Obviously a variety of procedures may be followed in order to accomplish these goals. The student may be taught the technique of previewing by reading either the introduction to or the summarization of the section, studying any available outline of the material, noting the major headings of the section, locating the topic sentence for each major paragraph, or by considering the study questions at the end of the chapter. Whatever the practice followed, the teacher must insure himself that his students have a general impression of the content of their reading and, particularly, that questions have been raised in their minds.

The teacher must aid his students in developing the ability to read fluently and critically. The good reader is not necessarily a rapid reader in that he covers a very large number of words per minute. Rate of reading is relative to the kind of material being read at a

particular time, to the conditions under which the reading is done, and to the purpose for which the person reads. The good reader, however, is a fluent reader in the sense that he reads smoothly, with a minimum of eye fixations and eye regressions and with as great an eye span as he is physically capable of managing. A high degree of fluency in reading is important because as the student reads, so he comprehends the material. To read critically is to think while doing the reading and if one reads in a halting, plodding manner, he thinks about what he is reading in a similar fashion. The teacher's responsibility in this regard is primarily to observe and develop, either with or without machines, proper eye movements and to teach the students the proper technique of note-taking, underlining, and of making marginal comments.

The teacher must aid his students in developing the ability to assimilate the reading material. In an abstract of a National Education Association publication, *Reading in the High School*, Leo C. Fay states: "The most valid criticisms concerning the reading abilities of today's youth apply to the lack of skill in the creative use of thinking rather than to the mechanics."⁴ Thus, an emphasis upon this aspect of reading instruction throughout the secondary school would seem to be warranted. Once the reading is completed by the students, the teacher can help them in this regard by having them recite formally for a variety of purposes upon the content of their reading; by suggesting several ways in which they can recite informally on their own time outside of class; by teaching them how to reorganize their notes and how to review the material; or by showing them the value of re-reading the material.

The important point is that the students be taught how to assimilate or absorb or incorporate what they read because to the degree that is accomplished, to that same degree they will draw valid conclusions, make proper generalizations, and give valid judgments.

DO I, DURING THE BRIEF SPAN OF OUR ASSOCIATION, INSIDE AND OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM, MAKE THESE BOYS AND GIRLS WANT TO READ?

Perhaps the greatest contribution that secondary school teachers throughout our schools can make to the improvement of reading is to make the students want to read. It has been pointed out many times that you *can* make a boy behave but you *cannot* make him a good boy. Similarly, it may be suggested that you *can* make a boy read but you *cannot* make him a reader. As a person's education is his own doing, so reading is a uniquely personal experience. Typically the attitude of the high school student toward reading is extremely negative—reading is a chore, a labor, and generally something to be avoided. Yet, only a few years ago, these same boys and girls had experienced the highest elation in completing their first primers and frequently had brought the books home to read to their extremely proud parents. Regardless of what may have intervened, it would seem that a basic element in the challenge to secondary school teachers is to revive that desire to read.

The effort to bring this about is demanding of the teacher's understanding of the individual student—his home, family, background, the opportunities he enjoys and those which he

is denied, his ability, his interests, his aspirations; demanding of the teacher's attention to the individual—designing reading habits which fit the student individually, providing reading materials which are not only in tune with the level of the adolescent generally but also with that of the particular individual; demanding of the teacher's cooperation—with the home and parents and fellow faculty members; demanding of inspiration on the part of the teacher—by the

example he sets, the interest he evidences, and the devotion he displays.

The impact of a planned program of reading instruction throughout our high schools would be not only immediate in that an individual boy or girl would become a better reader and thereby a better student; the greater gain would be society's which increasingly demands of the individual member a sense of inner security and tranquility that good reading helps to develop.

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BOOK REVIEWS

THE TEACHER AND THE CHILD. By Clark E. Moustakas. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$4.50.

This is a very unique book and one that will repay close study on the part of teachers-to-be and teachers already in service. The volume presents personal relationships between teachers and children in classrooms from kindergarten through high school. The reporting is simple and direct. The basic assumption of the author is that the development of the right kind of relationships in the classroom can make teachers more effective and children better able to realize their potentialities. The personal interactions reported in the book were gathered by 92 elementary and secondary school teachers in four school systems, who kept tape recordings and detailed notes on the developing relationships between teacher and child. Successes and failures in teachers' attempts to help children discover a healthier and more satisfying adjustment to life in school are thoroughly discussed.

The mental hygiene approach as a way of gaining insight into the meaning of children's behavior is also a topic carefully treated. The book should be of value to anyone interested in human interaction and the creative potentiality existing within individuals.—W. P. S.

THE CULTURAL LIFE OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES. By Louis B. Wright. N. Y. Harpers. 1957. \$5.00.

The cultural developments of the thirteen British mainland colonies in America are traced and described in this sound and very interesting account of ideas, manners, and institutions. The author approaches his subject in a most comprehensive manner and he is careful to discuss the cultural interests and achievements of both colonial aristocrats and ordinary folk. Especial stress is placed upon the development of religious and educational institutions. One of the features of this fine study is the extensive bibliography.—W. P. S.

Using Clinical Services in the Remedial Program*

By EMMETT ALBERT BETTS
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Non-Readers

MISS EARNEST, a very conscientious reading consultant, was worried. "I am at my wit's end," she began. "My master's degree in the psychology of reading prepared me to understand the needs of common corrective cases, but Johnny, Tom, Kit, and Mary have me stumped. Our school psychologist—who is tops!—tells me all of them rate 105 I. Q.'s or higher on her tests, but I can get no progress in reading! What works with the other children just won't get results with them. In spite of my efforts, they still can't read a pre-primer.² What do you suggest?"

Limitations of the Situations

Miss Earnest took her work as reading consultant seriously — attending reading conferences, keeping up her reading of professional magazines and books, and discussing the needs of her pupils with different professional workers. She gave a clear account of the setting in which she worked. Although there were over 900 pupils in kindergarten through twelfth grade, there was no supervision of instruction. Her only allies were a sympathetic superintendent, one cooperative school nurse who administered vision and hearing tests, and a competent administrator of

psychological tests. This school psychologist covered the entire psycho-educational front, with primary responsibility for the mentally retarded. Two elementary school principals, without secretaries, were bogged down in the administration of four buildings. The junior high school principal was primarily concerned with preparing his students for the senior high school; and the senior high school principal, with preparing his students for college. Miss Earnest was not complaining about the effectiveness of her co-workers; she only wanted to know what to do for four non-readers in that setting.

In response to questioning, Miss Earnest admitted that regimented teaching was producing an excessive number of retarded readers, especially among children with normal and superior intelligence. However, she was given no opportunity to work with classroom teachers to help prevent retardation. Instead, she was dashing to half-hour corrective reading sessions in all four elementary school buildings.

Signs of Complex Needs

A casual study of the record forms of the tests on the four non-readers revealed glaring failures on repeating digits both forward and reversed, memory for designs, rhymes, word naming

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(animals). Furthermore, on the vocabulary tests of intelligence, two of the boys gave "oranges are to eat" and other concrete rather than abstract responses. Upon questioning, Miss Earnest recalled that all four children had difficulty in trying to write because their sweaty hands stuck to the paper. Three of them were highly distractible. All of them were biting their finger nails.

When these facts were called to her attention, Miss Earnest exclaimed, "Now I am beginning to understand these children. Their *symptoms* were in the record and in their behavior all the time, but I didn't see them. But I don't know how to find out what is causing the symptoms or what to do about them. These must be *remedial* rather than *corrective* cases! What should I recommend to the superintendent?"

Action on Clinical Service

Miss Earnest came to recognize the need for clinical service—a service which gets at the cause or causes of a learning disability. She decided that four remedial cases in a population of about 900 pupils did not justify community support for it; instead, they should be referred to a reading clinic, staffed with clinical psychologists competent to deal with learning disabilities.

When Miss Earnest's superintendent asked her to present her recommendations to the school board, she clicked with them at once. They ruled that their school system did have an obligation to find out *why* pupils are non-readers. Moreover, they ruled that both the analysis and remedial service provided by clinics to which the parents are referred should be paid for by the board of education.

An Organic Case

Nine-year-old Johnny was the first

child to be admitted to the reading clinic by his parents. During the brief introductions, the clinician observed that both Johnny's and his mother's hands were wet. Both were tense and anxious, as revealed by their hurried speech, somewhat restless movements, and rigid musculature. Johnny's father, on the other hand, appeared to be deliberate and calm.

Johnny had an awkward gait and a definite head tilt to the right. His case revealed normal development of locomotion, teething, speech, etc. However, he did not have the motor coordination of his older brother and was somewhat handicapped in climbing and in playing baseball.

Screening tests revealed a vision problem, characterized by a break in near-point of convergence at twenty inches and by jerky (saccadic) rotation of the eyes. Johnny could balance himself on one foot, with his eyes closed, for only two or three seconds. Somewhat awkwardly, he did the heel-to-toe test of walking backward and forward. However, when blindfolded he could not point to the third finger of the right hand when it was stroked with a camel's hair brush. These and other indicators³ of organicity were confirmed by a neurological examination, including an electroencephalogram.⁷

On an informal word recognition test,⁴ Johnny identified *the*, *a*, *I*, but he did not know *mother*, *and*, *said* and other common words in pre-primers. He was able to identify not one word common to primers. On the informal reading inventory, of course, he was unable to read a pre-primer.

Johnny was able to repeat three digits forward and two reversed. On a special test of memory for designs his drawings were somewhat compressed and he had

extreme difficulty with angles, rotating the paper in his attempts to reproduce a design. On a test of "central" laterality, he consistently reversed with the right hand. He was unable to do the double-alternation test of concept formation.

In spite of his inability to cope with certain items on Form M of the Binet, Johnny achieved an I. Q. of 112. On the WISC he had a most irregular profile.

Johnny was easily frustrated. His arm and facial muscles were as taut as a fiddle string and became even tighter when attempting to work with words or digit symbols.

In analyzing Johnny's needs, the clinician at once set up the hypothesis that he might be brain injured. After positive evidence of brain injury was obtained, he had to determine whether the organicity contributed to the learning disability either directly or indirectly. (For example, it may be cortical or subcortical). When this relationship had been established, he gave additional tests to determine whether the condition interfered with word perception and/or concept formation. In Johnny's case, there was positive evidence of interference only with the perception of printed words rather than with concept formation.

An Anxiety Case

Ten-year-old Kit was the second boy brought to the clinic by Miss Earnest and the parents. His hands were cold and wet, and his finger nails had been chewed to the quick. He had a tic in the right eyelid and made unusual grimaces. He was, however, friendly and quite accessible.

Kit had been slow in learning to talk but appeared to have developed normally in many other respects. After he had started second grade, he began to wet

the bed at night. Following an operation for "crossed eyes," his teacher had held his head to force him to hold the book at the "right" distance and to prevent head movement. Reading had become a horrible experience.

On an informal word recognition inventory Kit began to make errors at the primer level and was unable to identify any words at the second-reader level. The informal reading inventory demonstrated that he could read neither a pre-primer nor a primer. By drilling on his spelling at home and school, he had memorized enough words to make a score of 48% on grade two words and 8% on grade three words. Of course, he couldn't use them for writing because that wasn't the purpose of his memorizing them.

Each day Kit's teacher sent home fifth-grade spelling words to be memorized. Not knowing that Kit could learn to spell easily only those words which were in his reading vocabulary, his mother denied him all television and play privileges until he had tried. Kit objected, cried, and avoided these sessions by many other withdrawal actions. In the process, he became hostile towards his mother and the school.

Before going to school, Kit had been a very relaxed child with many friends. Even now he enjoyed playing baseball and seemed to be relaxed while doing so. But he had lost some of his friends because they had made fun of him when he couldn't learn to read.

At the time of the analysis, Kit was tense. He became somewhat more relaxed as the clinician gradually put him at ease during the vision, hearing, and neurological screening tests. However, when he was presented with word recognition, word learning, or reading tests, he became very tense. His restlessness was reflected in jiggling the handles on

the drawers of the test table, tapping a pencil, twisting his feet and body, and looking for extraneous things to attend to.

On tests of word learning, information, and the like, Kit was apprehensive. He would ask, "Is that right?" Or, "Am I doing all right?" On a vocabulary test he would say, "I don't know!" on an easy item and respond quickly and correctly on a more difficult one.

On Form M of the Binet, Kit made an I. Q. score of 119—after his test scores were prorated to eliminate dissected sentences, Minkus completion, and other items requiring reading ability. On the WISC his performance score was significantly higher than his verbal score. On an informal hearing comprehension test he was able to recall and to discuss material at the seventh-and eighth grade levels.

On the intelligence tests, Kit showed a wide scatter. His digit span score was age 8 for digits forward and age 6 for digits reverse. He revealed rich and fast associations in the Jaederholm association test. He had no difficulty in associating rhyming words. But he made very low scores on the word-like subtests of the *Gates Associative Learning Tests*.

There were no indicators of organicity in Kit's case but there was much evidence of anxiety. The subsequent use of association, Bender-Gestalt, Thematic Apperception, and other projective techniques did not reveal extensive psycho-pathology.

In analyzing Kit's needs, the clinician set up the hypothesis that he demonstrated anxiety. After positive evidence of anxiety was obtained, he had to decide whether Kit's anxiety was a cause or a symptom of reading disability. In Kit's case, he concluded that anxiety

was now a part of the clinical picture and that it now contributed to his learning disability. Additional tests showed that the deficit was greater in attention than concentration—that word learning rather than concept formation was involved.⁸

To demonstrate the use of a tactile technique for word learning, words selected by Kit were used. However, Kit could not get himself integrated for the smooth and rhythmical tracing of the two-syllable word he selected. At this point, Kit and his parents were given systematic help with suggestive relaxation.^{5, 9} After about forty minutes, Kit had the basic concept of relaxation—at least enough to transfer to the tactile learning of his word. After learning five words in which he was interested—one of them was *chocolate!*—Kit, his parents, and Miss Earnest were convinced that he could learn to read. But equally important, they had insight regarding his needs which required more than mere reading instruction.

Other Types of Cases

Tom was eight years old when Miss Earnest and his parents brought him to the clinic. An analysis of his needs revealed both hearing and vision handicaps which had not been detected by the school nurse. He had considerable loss of hearing in the speech range and was unable to pass the rhyming word test of the Binet. He was suppressing the vision in his left eye and had a break in near-point of convergence at eight inches and a recovery at seven inches.

On Form M of the Binet, Tom's I. Q. was 105. His hearing comprehension was at the third-reader level, where he had no difficulty with the concepts.

Tom, too, had some symptoms of anxiety, but not to the degree that Johnny and Kit had. His hands were sweaty and

he was somewhat tense. However, he could relax easily except when confronted with a book!

Tom was referred to a vision specialist who did the necessary visual training before remedial reading was started. He was also referred to an otologist who could not improve the hearing but recommended periodic rechecks.

Seven-year-old Mary was the last of Miss Earnest's pupils to be studied. She had been a tense, highly distractible child before entering school. In spite of her Binet I. Q. of 132, she had not learned to read.

An analysis of Mary's needs revealed (1) almost a complete lack of understanding on the part of her mother and (2) a teacher who had dragged her entire first-grade class through preprimers, primers, and first readers—at the same rate (i. e., the teacher's rate). When Mary's situation was straightened out, she responded rapidly to remedial instruction.

Clinical Services

Analyzing the reading needs of Johnny, Tom, Kit, and Mary is a relatively clearcut undertaking. Briefly, the analysis embraces (1) a survey of interests, (2) an evaluation of achievement in the use of phonics and other word learning skills, and (3) a study of the ability to think in different types of reading situations.

Why an individual either cannot read or is having extreme difficulty in learning to read is another matter.¹ Some individuals have undetected brain injuries which may contribute grossly or subtly to a learning disability. In other instances, spasticity, epilepsy, and other diagnosed pathology may be involved. When organicity exists, the personality may not function effectively in an abstract learning situation. Hence, the services of both

a neurologist and a clinical psychologist who understands language disturbances are required.

Another group of cases may fall into the general category of the "emotionally disturbed". These are the children who are not secure in their relationships with others, who internalize the aspirations and anxieties of their parents, siblings, and teachers, and who sometimes have to adjust to maladjustment in school. That is, they have unresolved—and often hopeless—conflicts. Often their tension state represents a benign psychological and/or a somatic overaction to a specific situation, such as a reading disability. Sometimes, their tensions may be only a part of a group of other symptoms of difficulty. Occasionally, these tensions may be either the forerunner of pathology or the symptoms of existing pathology. Certainly no teacher—remedial or classroom—can justify labeling as "emotionally disturbed" all children with learning disabilities.⁶

Anxiety, therefore, may be causal or associated with a learning disability. What causes the anxiety is a problem for the clinical psychologist and/or psychiatrist who *works parsimoniously* to identify significant patterns of behavior, who verifies *interpretation* by direct observation, and who draws a *diagnostic* conclusion as a basis for therapy. Mild anxieties may be cleared through the use of appropriate remedial procedures. Other types of anxieties may call for studies by a specialist in internal medicine as well as by a psychologist and/or psychiatrist.

For many reasons, vision specialists often are called for consultation. A competent specialist may be needed to identify the type of squint and its relationship to a reading disability. Another vision specialist may be needed to analyze and correct interferences in accom-

modative-convergence relationships, especially for near-point, or book-reading, distances. Still another vision specialist may be needed to evaluate visual fields and other aspects of the psycho-neurology of vision.

Access to otological and endocrinological services is occasionally needed. While these services are not needed frequently, they are essential in certain crucial cases.

Using Clinical Services

With few exceptions, the parents and a school representative observe most of the testing. When the clinician is an experienced demonstrator, the test situation is informal and informative.

Usually much of the clinician's time is saved by obtaining (1) information beforehand from the parents and (2) complete records of all psychological, educational, and medical tests.

The Follow-Up

One of the important steps in the follow-up is the reduction of the child's anxiety:

1. The clinician demonstrates to the child that he can learn to read and how he can learn to read. This sometimes overlooked step is ever so important to the child who has given up hope.

2. The child may be taken out of

the school situation in which his frustrations have been compounded. But he must be taken out of an unhealthy climate and put in a healthy one.

3. The child and his parents and his remedial teacher are taught suggestive relaxation before remedial reading is undertaken. This relaxation is continued in each remedial reading session.

4. Special needs—such as visual and emotional—are cared for either before or during remedial instruction, depending upon the recommendation of the specialist. In some cases, however, the remedial reading is used as supportive therapy.

5. Special word-learning techniques are taught. How and when these are used depends upon *why* they are recommended.

6. Since these non-readers and retarded readers have not learned to *think* in a reading situation, special attention is given to these skills from the beginning of instruction.

7. Since the basic interests of non-readers reflect considerable maturity as contrasted to their written-language skills, special attention is given to the selection of topics bearing on their interests. Furthermore, high-level interest and low-level readability books are used as soon as possible.²

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Learning *and* Remedial Reading Materials

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THE USE OF specially-prepared materials for teaching children who have reading problems is gaining wide acceptance. Among these materials are phonic games, phonic drills and workbooks, word cards and games, and textbooks and workbooks which deal with problems of meaning and study skills. These materials may be found in both schools and "reading clinics," and it has been suggested that some be used at home by parents whose children are retarded readers. It shall be the purpose of this article to evaluate the effectiveness of these materials as teaching aids in terms of some principles of learning.

The term "remedial reading" implies a failure by the pupil to have profited from regular classroom instruction. It can refer also to the removal of specific weaknesses which heretofore have received no attention. The framework within which these prepared materials are used includes both connotations. It may be desirable to consider each of these materials separately.

Phonic Materials

Many retarded readers are unable to attack unknown words independently. Phonic instruction, along with other techniques of word-recognition, can help to overcome these difficulties. An examination of the prepared materials and the directions for their use reveals that one should begin at a given point, that

this element should be taught first and be followed by the second, and so on. *Should the teacher not start with the specific needs of the pupil?* Would it not be more judicious and economical to devote one's time to overcome specific difficulties, rather than to waste time to teach that which is known already or which is not now crucial? The goals of the learner must receive consideration. He must recognize the need for learning and not be expected to accept blindly the goals of the adult. He will want to learn if he knows that he *needs* to learn in order to solve the problem at hand.

A second examination of these materials reveals little or no provision for *meaningful* learning. Either the pupil is required to learn the sounds of individual letters or combinations of letters *in isolation* or expected to read lists of words which contain the phonic element to be learned. What provision is made for the *application* of what is to be learned? And what of the principle of basing instruction *upon what is already known*? If phonic instruction is to be effective, provisions for readiness for learning, needs of the learner and meaningful learning situations must be made.

Word Cards and Games

The development of a sight vocabulary is a prime requisite to reading for meaning. The seriously-retarded reader usually can recognize instantly but a

limited number of words. He must add to this stock of words if he is to become a facile reader. Word cards and word lists, along with word games, are available for teaching the vocabulary which is found frequently in reading matter. If a child does not know any or all of these words, he is to review them until he is able to recognize them easily. The word game, while perhaps a more pleasurable experience, requires the same kind of repetition. Once again there is lacking a meaningful learning experience. Words are memorized without regard for the context in which they appear. *Meaning* is ignored completely. To this must be added the question: Can we more effectively *teach* pupils to recognize words than merely require sheer repetition?

Study Skills and Meanings

Within recent years a large number of workbooks for teaching the study skills and strengthening word and paragraph meanings have become available. That these skills must be taught is beyond question. But can a student learn a specific skill—e. g., finding the main idea of a paragraph—by being told to locate it? He must learn *how* to do this before we may expect him to respond intelligently. Another serious weakness in these materials is the failure to recognize that these skills must be developed sequentially, that the adequate performance in one depends upon what has been learned earlier.

What may be of greater significance is the assumption that what is learned can be applied to other reading situations. Would it not be more desirable to teach study skills and develop meanings by using materials for which the student is held responsible? Why not use the social studies or science texts as sources of basic learning materials?

In Conclusion

It should not be inferred that all prepared materials must be discarded in favor of teacher-prepared materials. Surely some may be used profitably. However, one must ascertain the degree to which they fulfill the specific requirements of the learning task and critically evaluate the manner in which they may be used.

Perhaps some may contend that the suggestions which have been discussed here have been tried and have proved unsuccessful; a new approach to the retarded reader must be found. While little data which relates to the *number* of children who are retarded readers for one or more reasons are available, there can be no doubt that some boys and girls in this group are products of poor learning climates. Good teaching, while of different kinds and shades, implies the implementation of methodology which is psychologically sound. What is sound practice for the developmental learner is likewise suitable for use in the remedial milieu.

Bread *and* Roses

By HELEN CABOT MILES

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THEY LOOKED like sisters—some one said they were twins—and they were deep in argument, trim black heads bent over a large blue sheet of paper on which I could read only the sprawling word CURRICULUM. It was impossible not to overhear, even with the clamor of the other passengers on the bus.

"Well, I think you're very silly, Jill," one was saying in a sweet but positive voice. "After all, you do want to go to college and I shouldn't think you'd want to waste six good periods on something as impractical as art. Where will that get you? I think you really ought to take another science."

"That's all very well, Jane," One could tell by both tone and manner that Jill was a very different personality, considerably less sure of herself. "You're good in science. And you like it. Every year I've let you talk me into taking the same program you were taking, but right now I don't know whether I even care whether I get into college or not. This will be my senior year and I've decided to do something I really want to do. You know I like to work with my hands. That's why I want Crafts. And they say you learn a lot of interesting things in Art Appreciation, although it's not easy. Besides, it's a major, and I can get a unit for college—"

"Well, it couldn't be too hard—an art course, but it seems very silly to me. You'll be sorry. And it's not very public

spirited, either. There's such a shortage of scientists.

"I know—" Jill was hesitant, almost weakening now, I thought. Then, a little more decisively, "But I did try, Jane, and even that C- I got in Chemistry was a miracle. Just *once* I'd like to be in a class that was spending time on something that really interests me—like color schemes, and how to tell a good painting when you see it, and how to put colors and textures together into something beautiful all your own—like a piece of weaving."

* * * *

What a perfect example of the age-old battle, I thought. I feel for Jill, and I know just what she means. I used to think those things were important, too, when I was her age. In fact, come to think of it, I still do, after earning a living twenty-five years, knocking around two continents, and reading and studying everything from poetry and the Bible to the quantum theory and Einstein. Nor is this viewpoint of Jill's without respectable moral support, either. Even Alfred North Whitehead, that mathematical genius of our century said, I remember, that he had learned through the vivid life of his wife "that beauty, moral and aesthetic, is the aim of existence, and that kindness and love and artistic satisfaction are among its modes of attainment." Of course he did add that "logic and science are the disclosure of relevant patterns, and also

produce the avoidance of irrelevancies"¹ but he put the beauty first, thinking it that important . . . And so the battle rages: the Breads against the Roses. (May the nameless ancient Persian forgive the transmutation of his hyacinth!)

This last, I suppose, needs explaining. It must sound, offhand, like a funny combination, but the idea behind it is deadly serious: an observation that there are in the world two types of people who have never, more's the pity, been able to agree.

The first are the noticeably down-to-earth, let's-call-a-spade-a-spade realists; they are preeminently practical. The way to salvation for them is through science and the scientific method. Any other possibility they consider unintelligent, or medieval, and altogether unthinkable in this enlightened age of automation and the atom. I call them the Breads, because—well, there's nothing unnecessary about bread. A good staple product.

But what about the Roses? Some people seem to insist that their bread be served graciously. They think it tastes better if there are flowers on the table. In fact, they have even been known to split their meager coin so as to buy only half a loaf *and* flowers. These people are usually called impractical. They talk a different language. Nuclear fission notwithstanding, (and surely no one can ignore it these days) the way to salvation for them is not so much through science as through the individual soul. Communication lines between the two camps are invariably full of tangles and static.

"Soul," snorts the champion spokesman for the Breads, "Whatever is *that*?"

You can't see it, dissect it, photograph it, nor pick it up by radar. That means, of course, that it ISN'T."

At this point the Rose firmly quotes poetry, seeming to think it ought to prove something (the Bread has absolutely no idea what) and lapses after that into a language so overloaded, comments Bread, with "higher level abstraction" and generalization as to be completely incomprehensible: phrases like the good, the beautiful, the true," allusions to myth and parable, the intangible, even the spiritual. What, indeed, wonders Bread, have Mary and Martha to do with life in these United States in 1957? And as for Beauty, whose concept of beauty, please? And where does that get us?

But on education, which under the circumstances ought to interest the reader of these pages, can't they get together there? After all, *anyone* should know that the chief purpose of education is to develop the maximum potential of the individual so that he may live happily and serve society effectively forever after. But no, not even here will they bury the hatchet. The Roses, for example, will contend that that word *potential* (speaking of generalities) is open to debate. They will insist that although the scientific method is *one* important aspect, and that tho' the amassing of assorted scraps of information on a lot of subjects may have some point, "receptiveness to beauty and sensitivity to humane feeling",²—fellow-man for fellow-man, are of equal if not greater weight. Then they will point to high school curriculum after high school curriculum, especially at the college preparatory section of it, and say (alas,

1. Autobiographical note in *The Philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead*, edited by P. A. Schilpp, Northwestern University, 1941.

2. Whitehead, A. N.: *Aims of Education*, (New York 1929; The Macmillan Company. Mentor Edition 1949)

with unbecoming belligerence) "Where do I find what I'm looking for there? Is it mathematics that is teaching discrimination between the quality of one thing, or one act, and another thing or act? Or is it language? Or history? And if I do get this sensitivity there by some miracle such as osmosis, where do I find an opportunity to try out the *expressing* of my new feeling? Because this thing I feel I can't put into words but I could express, perhaps, some other way, and I *think* if I expressed it, then I would understand it even more thoroughly."

The Breads will of course counter that if you can't put a thing into words then you certainly don't understand it. Whereupon some enterprising Rose, who has strayed far enough from his ranks to look over enemy territory, will counter that even the top scientific-method testing experts are willing to admit that the IQ tests in current favor are "verbally loaded" and that there are certain indications that other types of high intelligence do, somehow, exist. But College Boards, my dears, (do let's be practical if we must) are concerned with the verbal. So there we are! We Roses live (or exist) in a Breaded world. What can we ever *do* about it? We may be different; we are not stupid. We *know* we have, way down deep, something that could be developed for the benefit of the world in general, the United States in particular. We have ideas about a lot of things—from how to avoid nervous breakdowns to possible preventives for crime and juvenile delinquency. If someone would only champion our cause.

Now to divide the world into a mere *two* extreme and hostile camps is of

course an untenable procedure. Any scientist should know—and the man of keen observation and plain common-sense as well—that things are not necessarily black or white, for there are also many shades of gray. Thus, in reality, there are continuums, not either-ors. Ever since Aristotle (or even Laotzu and Buddha) there have been those who were constantly pointing out that too much of *anything* is too much, and that somewhere in the middle lies the Golden Mean, the Razor's Edge, the Noble Middle Path. Even in scientifically statistical terms we have "regression towards the mean." It makes one wonder if Mother Nature and her protagonists haven't tried pretty hard to force the existence of a rather important and basic Law upon our resistant consciousnesses, somehow, by one method or another.

Perhaps it works this way: that whichever end of the continuum, whichever tendency toward an extreme is *your* natural, instinctive place, then *progress, growth, and education for you lies in first strengthening what you have to build upon (your potential), then in moving gradually toward the other end, toward the mean.* For if too much of anything is an unbalanced too much, then a little less of each, mixed with a little of the other should make a just-right combination and lead you down the middle of the road to the *narrow* gate and "unto life, and few are they that find it."³

Let's try to visualize some of these extremes and means, pertinent to our topic, to see whether they or the narrow road between them makes the most sense. We shall start, of course, with the symbolic team-names

BREAD	and	ROSES
	and in between, the balanced fare: FOOD FOR THE BODY AND FOR THE SPIRIT	
and then we shall continue with less symbolic pairs of opposites:		
ACTIVITY	THE MAN OF PURPOSEFUL ACTION	CONTEMPLATION
THE HEAD (brain, physical organ of the mind and consciousness)	THE "WHOLE MAN" (thinking <i>and</i> feeling. Balanced and healthy in body, emotion, and mind.)	THE HEART (physical organ of life-force, feeling, agape, <i>élan vital</i>)
SEPARATENESS, MULTIPLICITY, hence, ANALYSIS	Each functioning appropriately at proper time and place. BOTH NECESSARY TO COMPLETION	RELATEDNESS, UNITY, hence, SYNTHESIS
SCIENCE	DEPTH OF UNDERSTANDING (reconciling apparent opposites). THE MAN OF GENIUS, the Leonardo or Einstein of his day.	ART

This is merely suggestive, but may, for the eye-minded contain a little value.

Now what, specifically, does this imply so far as education in general and art education in particular are concerned? Several things, I think:

1. That we educators are dealing with extremes as well as intermediates, so far as the natural endowments of our pupils are concerned.
2. That the *non-verbal* endowment is no less worthy, in terms of an integrated, balanced "whole society" than the verbal.
3. That insofar as curriculum at any level is loaded with verbal elements, it is to some extent failing to provide the needed ingredients for a satisfactory education of the non-verbal.
4. That since the Golden Mean is the desired end, both extremes of pupils should be provided with both types of learning experience; any other course is bound to foster *im*-balance.
5. That teachers in the various arts fields (which, along with physical education and home economics deal with non-verbal functioning) should see their responsibility, especially at the upper levels (secondary, college, adult) as essentially two-fold:
 - a. to lead the non-verbal extreme toward a grasp of structure, of principle, which they must learn to apply analytically to the spontaneous expressions of their creative insights. . . The pupils at this extreme will fight against analysis, but unless we

insist upon it somewhere along the line, they will never make the desirable progress toward the mean which indicates maturity.

- b. to lead the verbal extreme toward an awareness of the non-verbal realm and its "languages" of line, color, form, texture, rhythm, balance, wordless harmony. These aspects of communication are potent in their significance for everyday experience and for ultimate living (as contrasted with existence) that is to be rich and deep and full; and the significance can *never* be realized by verbal means, or, at any rate, by verbal means alone. Further, *although the most extreme verbal types may never really grasp non-verbal depths any more than the non-verbal will ever master verbal facility*, yet only by the attempt will, again, the mean of maturity be approached.

It is scarcely necessary, perhaps, to point out that although this leading toward the mean is being done effectively from *one* end, toward articulation, very little is being done at the other; that is, little is being done in a methodical way to introduce non-verbal fare into the experience of the highly verbal student, or even to indicate to him that there are such faculties as the inner eye, the inner ear, and an entire realm to be explored for which there is no other key. There are many reasons why this is so—some more valid than others, but the fact remains.

But is there any evidence to support this assumption that maturity lies in the mean? Well, there is the "logical validation" of the teachings of our men

of wisdom. There are the Yang and Yin of ancient China, the earlier mentioned Noble Middle Path of the Buddha, the strait gate of Christian precept; there are the counsels of Plato and Aristotle and Whitehead and the countless thinkers in between. There are the pronouncements of those practical men in our hospitals and clinics whose concern is for our physical and mental health. And there are the men of genius of our time: our scientists like Einstein and Schweitzer who are also musicians, our statesmen like Churchill and Eisenhower who also paint, our playwrights like Shaw who are master psychologists. For has not balance, from time immemorial, characterized the great among men, those gloriously free and productive souls who have given us lesser mortals the vision of what we can and ought to be?

But let's return from empyrean realm to mundane, from generalities to specifics. Is there evidence in the records of the progress of our Jills that would support our contention that a balanced fare pays tangible dividends? That there is, as the Jills themselves, and their classmates, teachers, and counsellors will often testify. The particular Jill of our school bus episode, for example, helped by success in her art and music courses to find a sort of security with which to face the difference in her potentiality from that of her twin, went on to a college where she could major in the field of art. Now a senior, she is doing well. Her ability to think both independently and creatively, her capacity for discriminating, for comprehending the relatedness of areas of knowledge—these, she will tell you, fairly blossomed in the atmosphere of those classes Jane had prophesied would be a waste of time. Nor is Jill's case at all unique. Re-

ports from many a former student who has become a kindergarten teacher, or a business man, or a social worker bear out the conclusion that courses in the arts—courses featuring both participation and appreciation, if taught so as to sensitize, to unfold latent capacity for “awareness”—have turned out to be their most practical and useful course. That such reports do not seem by now to have been collected methodically into a body of such dramatic evidence as is needed to serve the Cause of the Deserving Roses is not surprising, after an analysis that reveals causes too many and complex for discussion here. The non-verbal and anti-statistic bias of instructors in the arts, by and large, is only one—perhaps a minor factor. Such carefully set up researches as the Eight Year Study have helped, but we need more of them.

Who, next, will champion the cause? Will more perceptive administrators, in time to come, put the two and two of the widespread concern of a thoughtful reading public for *Lonely Crowds* and *Outsiders* and a *None-too-sane Society* together with the apathy towards “book-learning” of the mass of “other-directed” public school youth and seek out a fresh and untried way?

There are, to be sure, straws in the wind, including a trend in colleges and

teachers colleges toward integrated programs, general education experiments that *sometimes* provide opportunities for non-verbal experiences. Having participated in just such a core-curriculum venture in recent months, I cannot help but wonder if the most typical of the Breads doesn't yearn to let the little bit of Rose in him come out into the sun, upon occasion. Once you can break through resistances—resistances forged out of ignorance—you can evoke the most astonishing responses to the aesthetic in the most unlikely quarters! You may even catch your athletic hero, rugged as they come, taking his Sunday date to the Art Museum, more than a little proud of wearing a new aspect of “culture.”

Could it be that we educators have been acting (unwittingly) upon a mistaken assumption or two, thereby committing not a sin of *commission* but rather of *omission*? Might the releasing into constructive channels of the creative urges that the psychologists know to be innate, and a greater concern for the nurture of the non-verbal, deep-buried, often inhibited strivings toward beauty and harmony help in bringing to pass the more ruggedly moral and healthy nation that is, at root, our common ideal? These questions might, I submit be food for sober thought.

Biodynamics *vs.*

Freudian Psychodynamics

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Chemical Factors in Mental Life and Behavior

THAT THE HOUSE which Freud built could not endure has been the view of most students of the biological sciences. As a theoretical structure it could not survive the test of time—or so many have believed—because it was erected on the shifting sands of psychological dualism.

Its implied dualism—separation of mind and body—is most apparent in its account of mental and personality disorders. These are traced to the interplay of contending psychic forces—to repressions, inhibitions, conflicts and libidinous strivings.

This emphasis on the interaction of psychic forces—many of them submerged or unconscious—as a source of most normal and abnormal behavior has earned for this system the descriptive designation, *psychodynamics*.

The inadequacy of the Freudian system is in evidence in its exclusive emphasis on these contending forces and in its failure to see the individual as a biodynamic entity. The concept of *biodynamics* calls attention, first, to the fact that mental life is sustained and made possible through a vast array of metabolic processes and, second, to the fact that the nature of these processes is a factor in the quality and direction of mental and overt behavior.

There will be no attempt here to

minimize the importance of environment and experience. But experience, it must be remembered, is itself a physiological process and is influenced by internal as well as external factors.

The purpose of this paper is to set forth the following:

1. The extent to which our primary drives—hunger, thirst, and sex—have a chemical and physiological basis.
2. The evidence that the individual inherits his own peculiar *chemical personality* which is no less unique than his overt or *manifest personality*.
3. The evidence that variations in the chemical personality and the changes to which it is subject through stressful experience are factors in mental illness and personality maladjustment.
4. The extent to which the individual's life—his career, achievement, propensity, special strength or weakness—is influenced, if not chartered, by peculiarities of his chemical and metabolic make-up.
5. The evidence that these distinctive traits are present from the beginning and must be considered in any program of effective education and training.

The Individual as a Biological Unit

A first consideration in dealing with behavior is the realization that the in-

dividual is a unit—a biological unit—which is acted upon by external forces and sustained and energized by the life-giving functions of the vital organs.

Every mental process must be seen as a physiological process, every function as the function of an organ or a structure.

It is this which Terhune (32), Yale University School of Medicine, has in mind when he states that "anatomy, physiology and pathology of the human body, influenced by the environment, provide the basis for and the only logical explanation of behavior."

Terhune deplores current psychodynamic theories of mental disease—theories which "may describe" but "do not explain these disorders" since "all mental disorder is the result of disturbance in physiology . . . the whole doubtless influenced by disturbing environmental factors."

In a similar vein Hudson Hoagland (14), Worcester Foundation of Experimental Biology, notes that "mental disease as a form of behavior must ultimately be comprehensible in terms of its concomitant molecular physiology. . . . A behaving disembodied psyche is a meaningless concept."

Further emphasizing the unitary concept of the individual is the observation that the only facts available to the psychologist and the psychiatrist are the facts of structure, physiology and behavior. Analysis and evaluation of individual behavior must be made on the basis of these and these alone—from the character of observed functions and outward manifestations, be they facial, postural, verbal or of the more gross overt type. All else is inference, generalization and abstraction.

The Internal Environment

Biodynamics, which stresses the unitary nature of the individual and the importance of internal influence and direction of behavior, takes on new meaning when it is realized that the individual is activated by an internal as well as by an external environment. (27)

This internal environment, first identified by the great physiologist, Claude Bernard, is the liquid environment of the cells which comprise the body tissues. Suspended in this tissue fluid are all the ingredients necessary to the life of the cells—oxygen, nutrients, minerals, vitamins, hormones, as well as the waste products, mostly in the form of CO_2 .

The continuous exchange of materials which occurs between the tissue fluids and the cells is paralleled by a similar exchange between this fluid and the blood stream, which, in its turn, receives its supply from the vital organs.

Each of the elements or ingredients of the internal environment must be maintained at a level best adapted to tissue needs. Maintenance of this level is referred to as *homeostasis*. Any deviation from this level leads to compensatory adjustments within the vital system. Considerable deviations lead to convulsions, coma, or, if uncorrected, death. Since the vital organs are responsible for homeostasis and for the processing and distribution of life-giving materials it follows that failure of any one of them must also eventuate in death.

The importance of the internal environment to any real understanding of the individual is seen in the fact [1] that it is the immediate source of the materials essential to the life of the cells, [2] that it is a factor in the level, qual-

ity and direction of human behavior and [3] that it varies with the individual—with his age, sex, health and type of intake from the external environment.

The remaining discussion will deal with these variations and with their relation to drive, emotion, personality traits and the adequacy of social and other environmental adjustments.

The Chemistry of Drives

In his recent book, *Study of Instincts*, Tinbergen (33) calls attention to the manner in which reproductive and migratory behavior of animals—as well as hunger and thirst—are governed by chemical changes in the body.

That this is so is evident from the fact that a given pattern of behavior may be induced or eliminated through control of the hormone or chemical balance. Through such control the reproductive sequence in birds may be reversed. Migratory birds may be made to fly north when they should fly south or vice versa.

A dog which has eaten all it can of its favorite food will show renewed interest following an injection of blood from a starving dog. This renewed interest becomes evident as it once more eyes the food eagerly, circles about it, drooling and licking his chops, without doing much about it, however, the "spirit being willing," but the stomach being full.

In all such cases behavior is controlled by changes in homeostasis, by changes in hormone balance or by an increase or decrease in the normal level of a particular substance in the blood stream and in the internal environment.

This chemical change serves to *prime* or bring into *readiness* the nerve circuits involved in the required form of overt adjustment, with the result that the releasing stimulus—food, mate,

nest, etc.—gains new and enhanced attraction value. To an individual with a poor appetite food may be made to "look good" by the simple device of injecting an amount of insulin sufficient to lower the normal level of blood sugar.

The starving individual is predisposed to think about food and, if asleep, to dream about food. Sexual dreams of adults are similarly induced under conditions of sex deprivation.

The above situations call attention not only to the conditions basic to organic drives but also to the manner in which a wide variety of other internal conditions may prime and bring into readiness specific mechanisms of overt adjustment.

The rapid increase in secretion of androgenic hormones in boys during the year before puberty, and the equally marked increase in estrogenic production in girls during the corresponding period, are basic to behavior and personality changes characteristic of the period.

It is the presence of these dynamic agents of internal secretion which provide, not only for distinctive accents of facial expressions and body contour, but which give new direction to interest and attention. They add new glamour to social events and to the free mingling of the sexes. They stimulate new interest in personal adornment in the girl and have much to do with the conscious display of manly virtues in the boy.

Internal Direction of Emotional Behavior

That a wide variety of mental illness is of emotional origin is the accepted view today in medical and clinical circles. It is also believed that many physical complaints — described as

psycho-somatic — are of mental and emotional origin.

But while there is general agreement on the emotional origin of much illness — mental and physical — this agreement does not extend to the *manner* in which emotions produce these maladies and complaints. It is at this point that the psychodynamic and biodynamic accounts diverge. The more obvious answers to emotionally induced illness, we believe, are found in the nature of the physiological events which attend emotional arousal.

Emotional states are induced through perception of situations with high emotional value, or through thoughts relating to these situations. Such thoughts and perceptions activate the hypothalamus, the center in the brain which determines or controls the changes which occur in emotional states. With activation of this nerve center there follows immediately a distribution of impulses through the autonomic nervous system (varying somewhat with the perception) which controls the vital organs. All of the internal changes characteristic of emotional states — respiratory, circulatory, gastro-intestinal, glandular — follow in consequence of these releases from the hypothalamus.

That these changes in the rate and function of the vital organs should produce disturbances in homeostasis — that is, produce an imbalance in body chemistry — is inevitable since the change in vital functions is occasioned in this case, not by tissue needs, but by special processes at the mental level. (26)

However, counterbalancing processes soon set in provided attention is shifted away from the disturbing situation. If it is not and if the imbalance remains this imbalance will exert its own influence on the brain and will predispose

the individual to think and act in a manner typical of the emotional state, whether it be one of anger, fear, grief, anxiety, love or hatred.

The "blindness" of emotional behavior — the tendency to do and say things which we later regret — is an obvious result of the influence on the brain of the prevailing chemical state. In this respect a parallel may be noted between instinctive and emotional behavior. In both cases the compelling and directional influence on behavior is biochemical in nature, though the origin of the chemical change is different.

In the case of emotionally induced illness it must be apparent from the above that prolonged or intense emotions, through their widespread effects on vital organs and vital processes, may very well produce psychosomatic symptoms, including peptic ulcers, colitis, nephritis and an array of glandular, cardiac and vascular disturbances.

It must also be evident that emotional experiences, if intense or traumatic, may so alter the chemical foundations of mental life and behavior as to produce many of the symptoms which are characteristic of some of the more common mental disorders. It is these circumstances which provide the background for Bailey's recent declaration that "Schizophrenia, psychiatry's biggest problem, will probably be solved by a biochemist." (2)

The Body's Defenses and Adaptations to Stress

Late in the nineteenth century Pasteur demonstrated that some diseases were due to specific pathogens — microbes, bacilli, viruses or bacteria. Much research has been undertaken since then, often in the hope that specific

agents or specific causes could be found for every form of disease.

That this was a vain hope and that there is much illness, including the mental, which is without *specific* cause has become increasingly clear. The individual may show *general debility*. He may feel below par, may suffer from a variety of aches and pains, may show arthritic, rheumatic and other symptoms of the degenerative type often accompanying the process of aging.

Is it not possible that, in the absence of specific causes, a *general factor* may exist, a sort of common denominator, which plays a part, not only in general debility, but also in the individual's susceptibility to specific diseases?

That there is, and that Pasteur himself was on the way to recognizing it, is apparent from this statement said to have been made by Pasteur in his later years: "The microbe is nothing; the terrain is everything." While this, of course, is an overstatement it points up the concept of a general factor in disease.

Early in the present century Walter B. Cannon (6) and his co-workers laid the foundations for understanding the body's defenses against stress, psychic as well as physical. Cannon called attention to the manner in which the combined action of the sympathetic nervous system and the adrenal glands serves to mobilize and coordinate the resources of the body in combatting the stressful situation.

Since 1935 a new and exceedingly important chapter on the body's adaptations to stress has been written by Hoagland (15), Pincus (28), Hyden (21), Eaton (11) and Selye (31), to mention a few of the more important investigators.

These men have shifted attention

from the sympathetic system to the endocrine system and, in particular, to the pituitary gland which is closely associated with the hypothalamus and which, through its influence on other glands, may be regarded as the master regulator of body functions and as the chief organ governing adaptations to stressful and threatening conditions.

Two of the pituitary's twelve or more secretions—ACTH (adrenocorticotrophic hormone) and STH (Somatotrophic hormone)—appear to be of chief importance to stress.

ACTH stimulates the adrenal cortex to discharge its corticoids. Both of these secretions—ACTH and cortizone—are essential to the coordination of body functions and to the integrative action of the nervous system.

STH is important in connection with exhaustion, in restoration of damaged tissues and in combatting bacterial and viral infections.

The activities set in motion during stress call for compensatory or counterbalancing processes if physiological equilibrium is to be restored and maintained. Increased thyroid production is one of the more important phases of this compensatory process.

The system as a whole has been identified by Selye (31) as GAS (General Adaptation Syndrome), by others as the Stress Response System or the Stress Adaptation System.

Its importance to the present discussion on internal dynamics lies in the fact that it varies in effectiveness from individual to individual and thus is a factor in the individual's susceptibility to stress—in his ability to face reality and the ease with which he becomes upset emotionally.

Laboratory studies dealing with GAS have made use of physical stressors like

exhaustion, extremes of heat and cold, inhalation of air high in CO_2 or low in oxygen, or injections of insulin or of sugar in sufficient quantities to disturb homeostasis, often to the point of coma.

Just what intense stress may do to the individual, and what it may do to the body's defenses, may perhaps best be seen from a study of combat troops (17) who, during the Korean War, had been subjected to five days of severe fighting, suffering 7% casualties.

Many of the soldiers showed complete adrenal exhaustion as seen from the fact that injections of ACTH failed to produce any adrenal secretion. The same soldiers showed a profound change in blood count, mature white blood cells having almost completely disappeared from the blood stream, a condition rarely observed except in severe burns and infections.

Most important of all: Soldiers who had fought side by side and for the same length of time varied enormously in the effects of combat stress. Since these differences depend upon psychological factors of experience and training as well as upon the adequacy of the stress adaptation system they will be discussed in a later section.

As we shall see, insanity and other forms of illness may result directly from failures of GAS. Derailment or maladaptation within this system may stem from [1] inherent weakness, [2] excess stress, or [3] from secretions which are excessive, deficient or unbalanced.

The Revolution in Psychiatry

Those who insist that we must deal with the individual as an organic unit also insist that there can be no pathology of behavior unless there is some organic dysfunction, induced either by experience or some physical agent. A pathology

of function — mental or otherwise — with no physiological counterpart is incomprehensible.

It is this point of view, reinforced by laboratory findings, which has inspired recent addresses before the American Psychiatric Association entitled *Psychiatry Becomes of Age* and *The Great Psychiatric Revolution*, the former by Burlingame (4), the latter by Bailey (2).

In both cases the change envisaged sets aside the psychodynamics of Freud in favor of a more biological approach, one which emphasizes the organic nature of all functions and the extent to which behavior is continuously affected by underlying physiological factors.

From this standpoint the integrity of what we observe at the mental and behavior level depends on the integrity of the sustaining physiological processes. As Dozier (10) sees it, mental disorders are as much symptoms of physical disorders as are dermatitis and diarrhea.

A more frontal attack on surviving psychodynamic concepts is made by Cobb (8) who takes vigorous exception to traditional distinctions between "functional" and "organic" disorders and to "the clinical jargon which uses the word 'functional' to denote 'psychogenic'". Anybody who stops to think realizes that no function is possible without an organ . . . and that no function takes place without structural change."

As for schizophrenia, which accounts for more than half of our mentally ill, Bailey (2) predicts that "this problem will probably be solved by a biochemist." But he wonders "how long the hoary errors of Freud will continue to plague psychiatry."

It is in dealing with schizophrenia that the clash of opinion is most in evi-

dence. According to the psychodynamic account these patients—typically withdrawn, apathetic and emotionally unresponsive—are engaged in “a flight from reality”, in “infantile regression” and are displaying “defects in the repression of infantile fantasies” (25). From this point of view, stuporous states may be regarded as “a security operation designed to immobilize anxiety” (1).

Contrasting with this account is the finding that the apathy and lack of contact with the environment of these patients is directly related to sub-par functioning of the autonomic system and to deficiencies of the stress adaptation system.

Thus Hoagland (16) and Pincus (28) find evidence in these patients of adrenal stress-response failure, that is, an inability of the adrenals to adjust to the changing requirements of the organism, notably during stress.

Consistent with this is the finding of Eaton (11) that basal metabolic rate is lower than normal in 50% of the schizophrenic and in 25% of the depressed. Hoskins (20) states that schizophrenia is a manifestation of disordered biology, involving endocrine, circulatory and metabolic disturbances. He finds oxygen consumption definitely sub-par, while lactic acid in the blood stream is 50% above normal. McFarland (29), by duplicating these biochemical conditions in otherwise normal individuals, was able to reproduce much of the behavior seen in schizophrenia.

While no review can be attempted here of different forms of mental and personality disorder it may be pointed out that several investigators have reported defective homeostasis in manic-depressive psychoses, the second largest group of the mentally ill.

In citing these reports there is no at-

tempt to minimize the importance of stressful experience. It is merely a way of pointing out that such experience will result in personality disorders only in so far as they produce disturbances in physiology, glandular dysfunction or failure of the stress-response system.

The Chemical Mind

It may be said that the maladjustments in which the educator, psychologist and psychiatrist are chiefly interested belong at the mental rather than the physiological level. To this extent the functions of the vital organs would seem relatively unimportant.

But not so. The point is this: No adjustments at the mental level, including interpersonal adjustments, are non-physiological. Moreover, the adequacy of thought processes depends upon the adequacy of metabolic processes, notably potassium metabolism, which is basic to the propagation of nerve messages. Apart from these electro-chemical waves which pass along the nerve fibers there would be no thought and no behavior.

The importance of this in relation to maladjustment is seen in the fact that secretions of the adrenal cortex regulate brain potassium. It follows that if these secretions vary—and they do—the adequacy of the individual's mental adjustments will vary.

Some of the uniqueness of the individual mind may therefore have a chemical basis. On this point we quote Hudson Hoagland: “Potassium metabolism, in the face of repeated stresses of daily life, may be an important fact in the development of a psychosis.” As to its broader implications the author is no less explicit: “It may be that chemical deficiencies, perhaps genetically determined, make some persons more vulnerable than others to the stresses of

living. They may never become psychotic, especially if their lives present few problems, but under more severe environmental and personalized stresses their physiological defects may result in brain malfunction with consequent psychotic disturbances." (16)

The reality of the chemical mind and its possible uniqueness is underscored by the findings of other investigators. Rapaport (34) notes that "brain metabolism possesses peculiarities of its own," especially as regards protein metabolism. Caspersson (7) emphasizes the same point, noting that abnormalities of protein metabolism are present in much mental illness.

The relation of chemical factors to mental life and mental health is also seen in the report of Hoch (19) on narco-diagnosis and Wolf and Ripley (35) on the action of intravenously injected sodium amytal. These investigators find that administration of sodium amytal and pentothal render the individual more suggestible and more amenable to treatment and persuasion where disorders exist. Some of these studies have provided results which are in keeping with those obtained more recently through the use of tranquilizing drugs—reserpine and chlorpromazine.

The Chemical Personality

In the reality of the chemical mind we also have evidence of the reality of the chemical personality. Both tend to be unique. Both show the stamp of individuality.

That internal as well as external factors play a part in the development of personality traits is usually recognized. Few would argue that factors of training alone could account for the boisterous ebullience of Jackie Gleason, the finical reticence of Mr. Peepers, the re-

laxed poise of Perry Como, or the nervous mannerism of Imogene Cocoa.

These are matters of emotionality and temperament. They vary with the individual and with underlying glandular factors—with the quality, level and balance of internal secretions. They determine the *nature* of the individual and the species—the nature of the dachshund as compared with the terrier, the cow as compared with the bull, the male as compared with the female. All reflect peculiarities of their chemical make-up, a make-up which is genetically controlled and determined.

The story which is presently being unfolded in the biochemical laboratory reveals the extent to which the individual's life may be chartered by peculiarities of his chemical personality. To a degree these peculiarities determine his susceptibility to illness and disease, his special allergies and sensitivities.

In a larger sense uniqueness of chemical structure may affect an individual's career, his ambition, his fortunes in marriage or in a profession.

The theme of this story centers about the adequacy of the individual's stress system, his stress quotient, the integrity of neural integration, the level and quality of glandular production. Changes or variations in any of these will be reflected at the mental and behavior level.

These basic characteristics are present at birth. Even before birth. They have much to do with growth and appearance. From the beginning the individuality of siblings, developing in the same home, is apparent in appearance, manner and temperament. Except for internal differences boys would not grow to normal manhood, girls would not assume the physical characteristics peculiar to their sex.

The distinctiveness of chemical make-

up is also seen in the fact that one individual cannot take a skin graft from another unless that individual is an identical twin. It is also seen in the fact that the same chemotherapy does not produce the same effects in all. Even alcohol produces both similar and different personality effects.

Perhaps the most dramatic illustrations of chemical influence at the mental and personality level are found in experimentally produced insanity. Research psychiatrist Heath (13) isolated a protein enzyme, not normally found in the blood stream, but present in minute amounts in schizophrenics. When this substance was injected into volunteer human subjects it produced many of the symptoms common to schizophrenia. These symptoms began to appear within a matter of minutes, reaching a peak in an hour and subsided after two hours.

Most important of all was the observation that some of the subjects developed symptoms characteristic of the catatonic form of schizophrenia while others developed the symptoms of the paranoid form. In the former group the motor symptoms predominated (muscular rigidity and waxy flexibility), in the latter delusions and hallucinations were most in evidence. Differences in the effects of the same injections were assumed to have been due to differences in the chemical make-up of the individuals involved.

Hoskins (20) and Danziger (9) made observations on personality changes associated with over- and under-production of the organs involved in adaptations to stress. Apathy and withdrawal appeared to be typical in patients with adrenal cortex failure; mentally and physically sluggish conditions appeared in patients with under-productive

thyroids; stuporous and catatonic symptoms were typical among patients suffering from a combination of these deficiencies.

Prolonged and acute stress may leave the individual either with under-productive adrenals or with an over-active thyroid. In the latter case, the condition represents a failure of thyroid to return to normal, its increased secretion during stress being compensatory, in a metabolic sense, to increased action of the adrenal cortex. The effects of hyperthyroidism show up in symptoms of sleeplessness, excitability and feelings of urgency.

If this condition fails to correct itself surgery may be resorted to. If the thyroid is under-active thyroid feeding may be employed. After thirty days of such feeding the personality usually undergoes significant transformation. The previously sluggish and inactive individual becomes alive. Puffiness disappears, the skin assumes its normal characteristics and special sensitivity to extremes of temperature are reduced or eliminated.

Implications for Education and Early Training

As we have seen, individuals faced with the same dangers, the same threats to their existence, vary considerably in the effectiveness of their adjustments. While these differences are measurably affected by the adequacy of the stress adaptation system they are also affected by how the situation is *perceived*. These differences at the perceptual level depend upon differences in the mental and emotional habits the individual has formed from the earliest years of life. In this section some attention will be given to this phase of personality development and its relation to stress tolerance.

Importance of Early Years. Here as elsewhere the clash of opinion between psychodynamic and biodynamic accounts are as much in evidence as ever.

Thus, Terhune (32), taking exception to "present overemphasis on psychodynamics" in dealing with early childhood behavior, declares that "psychiatric disorders of childhood are fundamentally physio-psychic in nature"—that is, they are aroused directly by physical sensations and feelings. He further declares that "Too much emphasis on the importance of theoretical psychodynamics in rearing children is producing, among the educated, a race of unnecessarily guilty mothers and angry fathers, a condition which in itself tends to disrupt families."

Strongly supporting this view is the shifting and transitory nature of early childhood emotions. They appear to shift and change as the situation changes. This condition would appear to be inevitable in the young child prior to the development of significant social concepts and language skills.

In the absence of language or of a substitute medium of expression the individual is destined to live the life of the moment, responding primarily to existing conditions, internal and external. In the absence of rehearsal through inner speech there would be nothing to sustain the emotion once the situation has passed. There can be no worry either about things past or things to come unless the individual possesses a substitute medium of expression through which the absent situation can be kept alive.

In dealing with young children there is ample evidence that "out of sight" is usually "out of mind." A study now in progress shows that loss of a parent produces few sustained indications of anxiety in young children. There is little

change in appetite and no loss of sleep provided there is no interruption of normal care and administration. In the presence of the deceased the child may indeed weep, depending upon the behavior of others, but he may also be found, almost within minutes, playing in care-free manner with children in the yard or on the street.

Most people are unable to recall events belonging to the first three years of life. To the psychoanalyst this loss of memory is only apparent. The events are not actually lost but merely repressed owing to their self-centered (narcissistic) characteristics and oedipus involvements.

Much simpler is the view that loss of these experiences is due to the absence of language skills or absence of a medium through which the young child can rehearse such experiences. In the absence of such rehearsal or repetition the experiences are not retained. Even an adult cannot remember a telephone number unless he continues to rehearse it.

In dealing with maladjustments of somewhat older children the psychodynamic account gives comparatively little attention to habits, attitudes or skills developed through training. Where behavior problems are involved there is a behind-the-scenes search for special motives. This approach is well illustrated in case studies by Dorothy Baruch (3).

According to this account, a boy who steals, sets fires or attacks other children is not just untrained. He may be described as "a disturbed child" or a "mixed up child." Back of his behavior may be found a repressed hatred for his older brother. In this case his condition may be relieved—so the account goes—by "acting out" his repressed hostility. For instance, he may be provided with

an opportunity to pelt a sketch of his brother with hunks of mud or clay.

Similarly, a girl who stutters and stammers may be doing so because she cannot stand to see her father fondle the new baby. After mock drowning of the baby (using a rubber doll) this little girl—so we are told—may lead a happy and stutter-free life. An enuretic ten-year-old girl is not displaying an infantile habit residual but is venting her repressed hostility on her mother whom she “hates” because she is “in love” with her father (electra complex).

Metabolic Factors in Child Development. Since each individual inherits his own distinct metabolic personality it is not surprising that children should show their own stamp of individuality from an early age not only in appearance but in temperament. They may vary in emotionality, in stability and in dynamic quality. One or two case studies may serve to illustrate the point.

John J., nicknamed “Tubby” by his class mates, is 11 years of age, of normal height and intelligence, but quite obese (170 lbs.). Despite his five years of schooling and normal intelligence he has acquired few educational skills and is functioning at a grade one or grade two level. The clinical summary states in part: John’s low activity level and excess weight are suggestive of metabolic and glandular inadequacy or imbalance. Unless he is prodded continuously he just ‘sits around.’ In the clinic he had to be prodded on all items, even when he knew the answers. His one interest would seem to be food. During the examination he was concerned about how soon he could go downstairs for a cone and a candy bar.”

In marked contrast is the behavior of Harry L., age 12, whose referral called

attention to “hyperactive, unrestrained and impulsive behavior.” While thin and emaciated he “ate well.” Teacher complaints included “disruptive behavior; inability to hold his seat; nervous excitability; over-reacting to little annoyances; busting up furniture and attacking other children.” An endocrinologist found evidence of “metabolic dysfunction” and prescribed sedation and a neurological examination.”

Training Factors in Personality Development. While emotionality and temperament are closely related to metabolic and genetic factors the restraints and self-discipline which must be exercised in the attainment of socially worthy objectives are largely a product of experience and training. These characteristics—identified in the classroom as work habits—do not come naturally. Social pressure devices of one kind or another are essential to their development. The two cases which follow illustrate common differences.

Andrew B., age 15, is an attractive well-built boy of normal intelligence but deficient (about three years) in most of his educational skills. The referral called attention to “poor progress; poor application; no restraints; does as he pleases.”

Educational tests revealed good comprehension but marked deficiency in most of the skills requiring care and application, notably those pertaining to spelling and language usage. Great unevenness was also in evidence on the personality tests. These showed deficiencies in “acceptance of authority, in family adjustment and in freedom from neurotic tendency.” Lack of supervision and effective direction (the mother admits he is “out of control”) has left this

boy poorly equipped to deal with the problems of life. From the standpoint of habits and attitudes he is definitely mal-adjusted.

Much better adjustment is apparent in Milton Q., age 14. Milton is a slow learner and is achieving at the fifth grade level which is normal for his mental age. However, on skills where steady application is important he is doing a good deal better. His mother is deceased, but his father, an ardent Jehoval Witness, provides careful if somewhat strict supervision. On the personality tests Milton showed excellent adjustment, especially on items pertaining to "feelings of security" and "family relations."

Training and Stress Tolerance. The Johns Hopkins research team, studying combat fatigue in the Korean War (17), found that "individual soldiers varied enormously in their reaction to combat stress." Men with the same training and experience, fighting side by side, "came out in markedly different states of exhaustion. One might be relatively fresh, another unable to give the simplest report."

These differences would seem to depend upon two main variables: Differences in the adequacy of the stress adaptation system and differences in direction and control exercised at the mental level.

The importance of the latter is seen in the fact that the situation must be perceived and responded to as stressful in order to have any damaging effects. In the above situation the dangers of combat were the same for all. But the ability to maintain appropriately directed attention apparently was not the same.

One individual might keep in mind

his chances for survival and might bolster his confidence by concentrating on his own ability, the superiority of his equipment and his command. Another might be all too conscious of the horrors about him and the extent to which his own life was in jeopardy.

Obviously, we are dealing here with factors closely related to social and emotional maturity. In the stressful situation the child and the immature adult are more apt to break down and become panicky. The superior control of the adult depends upon restraints at the mental level and upon more appropriate direction of attention.

The neurotic adult has great difficulty in maintaining objectively directed attention. He responds more in terms of himself, is more self-centered and thus more readily falls prey to senseless and needless fears. A soldier with neurotic tendencies might go through all the terrors of battle before he ever arrives on the scene.

The following is an illustration of superior self-command. A surgeon father worked effectively for an hour and a half in a vain attempt to save the life of his son who had been brought in for an emergency operation following a serious street accident. Employing the skills and the discipline he had developed over the years he went through with his gruelling task. Only later, with full awareness of his loss and his failure, did he yield to his grief.

How well the individual fares in the stressful situation depends in part, then, upon the adaptations which occur at the mental level—upon how the situation is perceived and evaluated and the effectiveness with which attention is directed and controlled.

Much of this depends on experience

and training. The hardihood of the adult is not attained by avoiding life's stresses or the possibilities of failure and defeat. A measure of frustration tolerance is an essential feature of mature living. Some of the more important characteristics of the well fortified personality may be listed thusly:

1. A measure of frustration tolerance developed through experience with frustrating situations.
2. A capacity for objectively directed attention as against subjective or self-centered attention.
3. A capacity for sustained application in the face of stress and in the interest of socially desirable objectives.
4. A certain orderliness in mode of living—a certain regularity in eating, sleeping, working, play and relaxation.

Life is full of threats and of dangers both social and physical. The avoidance of these and the attainment of security would appear to be primary objectives. On the subject of security and how it is best attained opinions vary, especially among educators. The left-wing or progressive group advocate a large measure of permissiveness in the home and the school. They would assure the child's security by providing a highly protected environment with few opportunities for failure or frustration.

The difficulty with this is that it may leave the individual immature, socially and emotionally, ill-adapted to the requirements of a highly regulated social order. Ultimately, security is not something we can *give* the individual. It is something which we can help him earn or achieve through the development of the habits, attitudes and skills essential to mature social living.

It has been the aim of this paper to set forth a concept of behavior which is consistent with the facts available to science. These facts would seem to dictate a more unitary concept of the individual than is presupposed in current psychodynamic theory.

Objection has been raised to the psycho-dramas and conflict dramas of Freudian tradition and the failure to relate these concepts to tangible and physical events.

Contrasting with these theoretical considerations is the biodynamic approach in which emphasis is placed on physical and structural organization and upon the capacity of biochemical factors to affect the quality, intensity and direction of overt behavior.

These physiodynamic factors are particularly in evidence in emotions and organic drives. In the case of these directional influence is exercised through chemical changes which prime the individual for the types of behavior which are characteristic of the drive or of the emotional state.

The discovery that each individual possesses his own distinctive chemical make-up has served to throw new light on personality differences. It has removed some of the mystery surrounding differences in the effects of common drugs, differences in susceptibility to disease as well as differences in resistance to physical and psychic stresses.

The ability of stressful experience to induce mental and personality disorders would seem to depend upon its ability to produce deviational effects at the physiological and chemical level. The concept of "purely functional" disturbances in the absence of disturbed biology is incompatible with the facts of human organization.

In accounting for differences in sus-

ceptibility to stress attention has been called to variations in the individual's habit system, to variations in the chemical personality and to differences in the effectiveness of the stress adaptation system.

That we are witnessing the dawn of a new era in psychology and medicine has been the contention of some of those

most closely associated with recent biochemical research and its bearing on the chemical foundations of mental life and behavior. While much of this work has yet to be evaluated it does seem to pre-
 sage a new and better understanding of some of the more intricate problems of personality development and adjustment.

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The Teacher and Occupational Counseling

By JOHN E. OWEN

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TWO MILLION young Americans are confronted every year with the occasion to decide what their future careers will be. Many of them have vague notions regarding their capacities and talents, and how these can best be used. It is the purpose of this article to suggest a number of practical ways in which teachers and parents may more easily guide young people to a wise decision, as well as to raise pertinent issues that have a bearing upon vocational choices.

Final Decision

For several reasons the final decision should preferably be that of the boy or girl concerned. Notwithstanding, it is important for parents and advisors to inquire as to the basis of knowledge and experience upon which the young person's preferences are founded. How wide is his knowledge of different occupations and vocational possibilities? How well does he know himself and his capabilities? For most young people in their late teens, neither their own self-awareness nor their knowledge of the demands and actual working conditions of different occupations is likely to be very well-grounded or extensive. It is necessary to modify their dreams to the realities of the world of experience, a process that normally takes some time.

Parents

No outsider can ordinarily know a child nearly so intimately as a discerning parent, through having lived with him during the whole of his life and observing him at close range in a variety of situations. The traits of mind and character that the youth reveals, the talents and aptitudes he manifests, can furnish a valuable series of pointers for the kind of work he is best able and qualified to perform. But it is an error to suppose that all young persons are especially "intended" or "cut out" for specific jobs. For most boys and girls there will probably be no clear-cut or compelling reason for their choosing any one career. Usually the problem resolves itself into that of making a choice from several promising possibilities, embracing a particular *type* of work, a range of related choices, rather than some special occupation *per se*.

What part should parental wishes and viewpoints play in the choice of the offspring's career? A parent's greater experience and knowledge of his child should be respected, but it is important to remember that the boy or girl is an individual with his or her own peculiar talents and interests. Advice of the "If I were you . . ." variety can be both negative and dangerous in its effects. A

parent or counselor should guard against superimposing his own values or preferences upon the child. To regard a son or daughter as one's "second chance," and to give advice and influence from the background of former occupational disappointments in the parent's life is fallacious from the outset and can only lead to unhappy results for the child. The combined judgments of several persons who have had contact with the youth (parents, advisers, teachers) are usually more indicative.

New Occupations

Many young persons simply are not aware of the newer range of occupational possibilities that is open to them. With the passing of the years, there may and normally will take place a great growth in this youthful knowledge of opportunities, together with the emergence of latent powers. A teacher can do a great deal, however, to prevent false career-starts and later regrets by giving students before they leave high school, some knowledge of the impressively wide range of jobs available today. It will come as a surprise to most high-school students, and to many of their parents, to learn that the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* lists 22,000 occupations.

In pointing out to students the variety, scope, and demands of different types of work and the long-range occupational trends, the instructor will acquire much information that he himself will find useful and interesting. Job forums in the secondary school, in which alumni and others are called in to speak about the nature of their callings, its requirements, problems, and rewards, could be one means of widening the students' knowledge of job pos-

sibilities. The high-school librarian can be a prime source of information, by virtue of the many excellent career-guides and pamphlets that are currently being published.

A youth counselor or advisor in this field has an obligation to keep abreast of the latest facts about occupations, or to have ready access to them. Conditions in occupations change markedly over the years; parental judgments and opinions may be out-of-date at the time of advising the current generation. Several new industries have arisen on the American scene just since the end of World War II, other vocations are diminishing in significance, and training requirements in more than one profession are changing. Before the cost of training for any particular vocation is considered prohibitive, it is advisable to check into the many new scholarship opportunities currently available. These have increased to an all-time high in the last ten years. Thus if a boy or girl has an aptitude for science or mathematics, scholarship aid may be received from the time of high-school graduation all the way through college and graduate school.

Problems of Advisors

One problem commonly encountered by advisors is that of the widespread prejudice against "blue-collar" or manual jobs. This prejudice may be present in the parent who is concerned that his son or daughter prepare for a high-prestige "white-collar" position, when the child's preferences and abilities may be closer to skilled labor, and it is sometimes found in the status-conscious youth who seeks a managerial, professional, or intellectual career for which he is plainly not fitted. Despite the cur-

rent popularity of the professional and executive positions in the thinking of present-day youth, the fact remains that the bulk of our national working force is engaged in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, while the professions account for a bare 7% of our workers. For many jobs today, a college degree is still not required—a fact that occupational advisors might well keep in mind in this day of rising college enrollments. If a boy or girl shows promise of becoming an excellent construction worker or machinist, and if his personal choices match his aptitudes, the main “advising” may have to be directed toward the prestige-obsessed parent who mistakenly disapproves of what to him is a lowly occupation.

In attempting to decide upon the type or range of work that appears most promising, the teacher-adviser has to ascertain the occupational level for which the youth is best fitted. Some adolescents are clearly suited to professional careers, by virtue of their academic records, revealed capacities, and mental performance in the past. Others may be better adapted to semi-professional, skilled, or semi-skilled tasks. One significant factor determining or suggesting the direction of desirable future training, if any, is that of the general intelligence tests. If the I.Q. is barely a few points above average, and if the academic record is mediocre, then certain types of work can be eliminated at the start. Special aptitude tests may likewise be very revealing. Expressed qualities of analysis, keen observation, logical faculty, accuracy, visualization, originality, or mechanical analysis may suggest work-choices. In general, there are four kinds of tests, namely, those that measure verbal or symbolic intelligence,

(I.Q.), special aptitude tests, tests of performance or skill, and personality tests. The results of an entire battery of tests should ordinarily give some helpful information on which judgments can be based. Among special abilities, tests may indicate a propensity for art, music, manual dexterity, or clerical work. On the other hand, certain physical handicaps (e.g., poor eyesight) and the general health record of the individual may serve to eliminate certain kinds of work-choices.

The advisee's interests will also furnish several clues to occupational avenues. While it is necessary to distinguish between interest and aptitude, the two are usually connected. What a boy does well, he generally likes to do and finds interesting. High-school courses may clarify the question of interests and abilities, in art, mathematics, science, and languages, and the record in these courses may be of aid in eliminating the type of work for which a student is patently not fitted. Indeed, perhaps the most important question of all centers around what the youth *enjoys* doing. On the basis of past experience, in what activity is he most happy, absorbed, and lastingly satisfied?

On-the-Job Experience

Experience in after-school or summer jobs can be very helpful in answering this question. In this practical work-experience, abilities and talents have a means of expressing themselves. The “learning by doing” theory involves learning or becoming aware of one's capacities in the experience of exercising them. A summer job may reveal definite skill with machinery or it may indicate that the boy's interest in mechanical things was not matched by a correspond-

ing aptitude. A summer's experience in an office may convince a teen-ager of his ability for clerical work, together with his craving for something less routine and more demanding. He may find out, as he would otherwise never be able to, whether he prefers to work alone or in company with others. Whether he desires to assume responsibility, and if so, of what kind, will also be made clearer to him by virtue of actual experience in a job. A preference for outdoor work, for jobs involving a busy rush from morning till night, for regular hours with a well-marked division between work and leisure-time, or the opposite in each case, may be revealed in part-time or vacation experience, and form a basis for discussion at the time of advising and counseling.

Parents and Teachers

Regardless of the ultimate decision, parents and teachers can play a constructive role by imparting to the student a sense of purpose and an aware-

ness of the importance of this particular juncture in life. The earlier a youth can find his occupational goal and plan to move toward it, the greater the likelihood of its successful attainment. Advisors can be of aid to students, prior to the final vocational decision, in other ways, among which is the developing of personality traits deemed desirable in work experience. Occupational adjustment is not solely dependent upon intellectual factors. Qualities of accuracy, industry, equanimity, poise, dependability, and careful attention to the demands of the job may play as large a part in vocational success as I. Q. While I. Q. is relatively stable, personality and character traits can be modified profoundly under the influence of learning-situations. In assisting young people to make a wise occupational choice, it is possible to inculcate in them those qualities that will enhance the likelihood of their becoming useful, competent, and happy workers in whatever occupation they ultimately follow.

BOOK REVIEW

SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS. By Leslie W. Kindred. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$6.00.

The importance of school public relations has been stressed these many years and much has been said and written on the subject. *School Public Relations*, by Professor Kindred of Temple University, is, however, the finest, most succinct, and most effective statement on the topic that it has been the good fortune of this reviewer to examine. The volume attempts to clarify the present confusion and chart a course of action for schools that is both practical and consistent with the role of the school as a social institution in a democracy. In this, the author succeeds extremely well. He recognizes that publicity is inherent

in public relations, that informational service is necessary for interpreting the school to the community and the community to the school, and that the heart of a dynamic program lies in citizen cooperation and participation in the affairs of the school. The utter practicality of the volume emerges in the emphasis on the importance of designing programs around the relationship problems of the school and its special publics. The position is taken that unless these problems are dealt with effectively, there is little likelihood that parent and nonparent taxpayers will take a positive interest in our schools. The book is one that merits the serious study of all educators, but primarily that of school executives and school board members.—William P. Sears, Jr.

What Schools Are Doing *in* Challenging *the* Rapid Learner

By GUY WAGNER*

*"Every man has his proper gift of God,
One after this manner, and another after that."*

—I Corinthians VII-7

DURING THE PAST several years there has been increasing attention given in our schools to the problem of developing programs that challenge the rapid learner. There seem to be four major ways by which schools are provided for these youngsters of exceptional ability: (1) Enrichment experiences stressing independent, creative thinking, (2) Grouping within the regular classroom, (3) Special ability groupings on a part-day basis, and (4) Accelerated promotion. Most educators probably agree that the enrichment aspect should be exhausted first and that the other three methods of caring for the gifted should be supplementary.

There is a fifth plan that a few school systems have adopted—the separation of the rapid learners so that these young people associate during the school day chiefly with pupils of extremely high academic potentialities. For instance, in the Major Work classes of the Cleveland Public Schools, the rapid learners are put in special classes for academic instruction, although they mix with the other children during recess and in such classes as art and music. The Robert E. Lee Junior High School in Baltimore draws rapid learners from all over the city, although it also has classes of pupils who are more average in ability. The Hunter College Elemen-

tary School in New York City admits only children selected on evidence of superior mental ability. Thus, the pupils of this school spend the entire day with those of high intellectual capacities. Any school that gives entrance examinations tends to enroll a mentally superior population. This is true of many of the eastern preparatory schools.

The following publications should be of interest to educators who are developing programs by which our highly talented young people may have their achievements match their potentialities.

Cleveland Public Schools, *Cleveland's Plan for Gifted Children*. Cleveland, Ohio, 1956.

This highly readable 32-page booklet describes the Major Work classes which have been organized in Cleveland since 1923. The discussion is centered largely around a boy named Charles who, early in his school career, was identified as having the characteristics of a gifted child. Actually, Charles' performance in school up to that time had been rather poor, apparently because the typical work in the kindergarten and first grade had not been challenging to him.

With the complete understanding and approval of his parents, Charles was transferred to a Major Work class at the Jefferson School, which has classes for the gifted. He is reported now, as a 6-A pupil, to be happy, successful, and well-adjusted.

*Dr. Wagner is director of the Curriculum Laboratory, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

This publication devotes much of its presentation to the nature of the classroom, the curriculum, and the ways of teaching children in this school for the gifted. The author explains that "The greatest resource of a nation is its gifted citizens, but latent intelligence is no more valuable than unmined coal." Therefore, in the Cleveland Schools, a program of work has been developed which has as its purpose the training of these gifted children to utilize their abilities and, at the same time, learn to live happily and successfully with others. "That these plans and programs have aided large numbers of gifted children to become valuable citizens is attested by the lives of men and women who attend Major Work classes in the Cleveland Public Schools."

Philadelphia Public Schools, *The Gifted Child—His Education in the Philadelphia Public Schools*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1956.

Helen C. Bailey, Associate Superintendent, introduces this publication by saying, "It is a thing of the spirit—the willingness to permit and to help each child to go as far and as fast as his ability will allow. It demands all our wisdom, all our insight, all our generosity. It transcends plans, courses and measurements. It assumes that some will go distances we never can traverse, and that we must be content to have pointed the way."

The program for the gifted child in the Philadelphia Public Schools, as explained in this outstanding publication, is organized around: (1) The search for talent, (2) A point of view regarding the treasure of human potential which exists in our nation, (3) The problems which the school faces in its quest for ability and talent, (4) The effort which the Philadelphia Schools are putting forth in "mining" the human treasures of the gifted, and (5) The reward which can be measured not only in material benefits to the individual and the nation but equally important, even if less tangible, in the pride that we would rightfully derive from having

developed intelligent leadership and the confidence we would possess in the ability of the next generation to do a somewhat better job than we have done.

"As a people we long ago chose to look for the promise of leadership not in lofty polished places, but in the crib of every child. The researches of science and the facts of daily achievement have long since proved the wisdom of our choice. On the whole, however, we have done more to acknowledge this promise than to nurture it. That so much has been accomplished with insufficient means should serve as an indication and an incentive for what could really be achieved. There is every reason to believe that this nation, so spectacular in its achievements with steel, speed and atomic power, can, if it will, work miracles for the fullest growth of its own children."

Houston Independent School District, *Challenging the Gifted Student in Literature*. Houston, Texas, 1956.

This bulletin is one of several designed to strengthen the program of offerings for the gifted in the Houston senior high schools. As guidelines for this program, the board of education approved the following lines of action: (1) Every effort should be made to identify students of unusual ability early in their school careers, (2) Students of outstanding ability should be carefully counselled in selecting courses that will be fully demanding upon their ability, and advised to carry additional courses, (3) After-school opportunities for research and study of a high level should be provided in a variety of fields, (4) Special sections should be organized for the ablest students in courses for which the enrollment is sufficient to permit such sectioning, and (5) Additional opportunities should be provided in every classroom for abler students to extend and intensify their study.

The authors of this publication say that even with heterogenous classes many English teachers "are able to contribute toward the development of the

special powers found in their gifted students."

The major portion of this publication is devoted to presenting practical ways in which the gifted student may be challenged: (1) through general classwork, (2) through group work planned together by teacher and students, and (3) through individual conferences, where the teacher may assign individual projects that call for abstract thinking and for reading on a mature level.

The writers of this publication believe that "while these approaches may even be more rewarding when carried on in sections composed of the gifted students only, they can be adapted to the work in any classroom."

Connecticut State Department of Education, *Education for Gifted Children and Youth*, Bulletin No. 77 Hartford, Connecticut, 1955-56.

This bulletin is designed to: (1) Help teachers and administrators become more sensitive to the child who has potentials of unusual competence, (2) Outline ways and means by which the gifted may be identified, (3) Suggest types of programs and school activities which may contribute to the bright and talented pupil, and (4) Outline the role that may be played by various groups and resources within the educational and community structure.

It is pointed out that the terms "gifted," "rapid learner," "talented," etc., are used relatively. By such terms some people mean those who have an I. Q. of 140 or higher—that is, approximately the upper one per cent in intellectual ability, while others prefer to include persons whose ability in any activity is superior to that of 80 to 90 per cent of the general population. "Each school system, as part of its plan to meet the needs of all pupils, should make its own decision concerning what degree of superiority 'giftedness' indicates. In this pamphlet no attempt has been made to define the term with reference to a specific I. Q., but it is understood that we are concerned with children and youths who have potential superiority

in scholarship, leadership, mechanics, music, art, or any other worth-while human endeavor."

Specific suggestions for helping the gifted achieve their potentialities include: (1) Encouragement to read extensively and critically, (2) Special emphasis upon the ability to handle relatively abstract ideas, (3) Experiences in production such as the writing and producing of plays and television programs, (4) Being excused, on occasion, from some regular classes in order to do approved individual research, and (5) Providing special activities as, for instance, assisting scientifically gifted children to prepare for regional science fairs and arranging annual mathematics tournaments designed for pupils of unusual ability in this field.

Dade County Public Schools, *Teaching the Talented*. Miami, Florida, 1956-57.

The first part of this publication describes the general program for talented pupils in elementary schools, pointing out that the present plan is that of keeping talented children in the regular classroom and enriching the curriculum to meet their individual needs. A number of specific experiences which are designed to challenge these talented children are listed, although it is apparent that most of these experiences are equally applicable to the other pupils—the differences probably being in the degree of emphasis.

The general program for the talented pupils in the secondary schools is explained in terms of the various curriculum areas. Under each of these areas there are a number of specific activities suggested, for example: (1) Publish a news sheet in the foreign language which is being studied, (2) Have speed reading classes in the language arts, and (3) Work with and develop shortened methods of computation in the mathematics courses.

There are four experimental programs going on in Dade County at the present time: at the Central Beach Elementary School, the Sylvania Heights

Elementary School, the Miami-Edison Junior High, and the North Miami Senior High. Each of these programs is explained in some detail. As one example of the action program, the algebra students at the North Miami Senior High were grouped together for elective intermediate algebra. "This group in algebra was not retained as a group in other areas of instruction so that individuals comprising this group found themselves in contact with students of varying degrees of ability and interest."

The publication concludes with a number of important *implications for future study* among which are. (1) How does the talented pupil regard himself as compared with how other pupils regard him? (2) What are the social results of special grouping for talented pupils? (3) What happens to the development of other pupils when the talented pupils are removed from their group? (4) How can talented children who are neglecting their talents be motivated to develop them? and (5) Do special groupings for talented children set up conflicts in the minds of the pupils?

Ventura County Schools, *Enriching the Curriculum for Gifted Children*. Ventura, California, 1954.

This publication is devoted to an enriched program for gifted elementary school children in one curriculum area, *the social studies*. An important section of this publication deals with special problems of the gifted child. The writers say that some of the basic sources of gifted children's adjustment problems are (1) Classmates' resentment of the gifted child's scholastic ability and

the adult approval that it brings, (2) The teacher's tendency to emphasize and reward academic achievement and her failure to recognize the value of skill in manipulated activities, music, art, and social relations, (3) Over-cultivation of intellectual interests at the expense of physical and social development, (4) Resentment and minimizing of the gifted child's exceptional abilities by parents and siblings, (5) The teacher's lack of sensitivity to the children's reaction to the gifted child's accomplishments, and her failure to build with the group an understanding of differences in ability, and (6) The teacher's jealousy of the gifted child's abilities which often surpass hers. (Although there may be debate as to the validity of all these assumptions, they at least will serve as a good springboard for discussion.)

The publication is largely devoted to a presentation of provisions for educating the gifted child *in the regular classroom*, and specific suggestions are made for each grade level. The writers also recommend such general techniques as: (1) Modifying the program of studies to include more challenging subjects and more opportunities for creative work, (2) Helping the gifted child to work on class projects that make a real contribution to the class, the school and the community, (3) Providing a rich environment in which he may do independent work in science, art, music, and other fields, (4) Organizing informal groups in which he will learn the techniques of working happily with others toward the common good, and (5) Giving him opportunity to learn how to use the human and physical resources of the community.

DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*

School of Education, New York University



Photo by Clara E. Sipprell

PHYLLIS FENNER

Miss Phyllis Fenner undoubtedly is one of the best known children's librarians in this country. Her unique contributions to Plan-dome School, Manhasset, New York brought visitors from all over the world.

Miss Fenner has authored two unusual books for the guidance of parents and teachers. Her latest, *The Proof of the Pudding* (What Children Read), is reviewed by Dr. Linda C. Smith in this issue. A complete list of Miss Fenner's publications for professional and classroom teachers follows Dr. Smith's review.

THE PROOF OF THE PUDDING. By Phyllis Fenner. New York. The John Day Company, 1957. \$3.95

This book is addressed to parents, librarians, teachers and others who would be selective in providing a suitable book for a specific child. Among the questions which Miss Fenner answers are the following: What books appeal to a child? Why? How can children be encouraged to read more? What are the new classics? What are some of the

best books of all time? Why does a child like them? On what basis may we expect children's choices to vary? What books are best liked by children of certain types and ages? Who are some of the popular authors? What are the best editions of oft reprinted books? What books are enjoyed best when read aloud? How should one begin to build up a child's library?

For more than thirty years, as a school librarian at Manhasset, Long Island, Miss Fenner has been gleaning answers to such questions as the above. In this unique volume she has assembled the answers. Throughout the book her sensitivity to the experiences, problems, and reactions of children is revealed through anecdotes of deep human interest. Rare is the author who while classifying, cataloging, and annotating literally hundreds of books can at the same time so challenge the attention and interest of the reader. The book is as readable as a novel. It is an invaluable reference book. It should be in every public and school library and available to all who seek guidance in the selection of children's books.

Linda C. Smith, *Associate Director*
The Betts Reading Clinic
Haverford, Pennsylvania

BOOKS BY PHYLLIS FENNER

Adventure, rare and magical. New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1945.

Brother Against Brother: Stories of the War Between the States. New York, New York: Wm. Morrow & Co., Inc. 1957.

Cartoon for Kids. New York: Franklin Watts Inc. 1951.

Circus Parade. New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1955.

Cowboys, Cowboys, Cowboys. New York, New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1950.

Crack of the Bat. New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1952.

Demons and Dervishes: Tales of More Than Oriental Splendor. New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1946.

Dogs, Dogs, Dogs. New York. Franklin Watts Inc. 1951.

- Elephants, Elephants, Elephants.* New York. Franklin Watts, Inc. 1951.
- Feasts and Frolics.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1949.
- Fools and Funny Fellows: More "Time to Laugh" tales.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1947.
- Fun, Fun, Fun.* New York. Franklin Watts Inc. 1953.
- Ghosts, Ghosts, Ghosts.* New York, New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1952.
- Giants and Witches and a Dragon or Two.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1943.
- Giggle Box.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1950.
- Heroes, Heroes, Heroes.* New York, New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1956.
- Horses, Horses, Horses.* New York, New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1949.
- Indians, Indians, Indians.* New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1950
- Magic Hoofs: Horse Stories from Many Lands.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1941.
- Merry Hearts and Bold.* New York, New York: D. C. Heath and Co. 1942.
- Our Library: The Story of a School Library That Works.* New York, New York: The John Day Co. 1942.
- Pirates, Pirates, Pirates.* New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1952.
- Princesses and Peasant Boys: Tales of Enchantment.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1944.
- The Proof of the Pudding: What Children Read.* New York, New York: The John Day Co. 1957.
- Speed, Speed, Speed.* New York, New York: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1954.
- Stories of the Sea.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1953.
- Time to Laugh: Funny Tales from Here and There.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1942.
- With Might and Main: Stories of Skill and Wit.* New York, New York: Cadmus. 1948.
- Yankee Doodle: Stories of the Brave and the Free.* New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf and Co. 1951.

SOCIAL GROWTH THROUGH PLAY PRODUCTION. By Jack Simos. New York. Association Press. 1957. \$3.75.

A judicious combination of the theoretical and practical, this stimulating book contains an excellent analysis of the function and value of the creative process in dramatic art as it is related to the personal growth of young people. The procedure is exemplified by a detailed account of two productions, some case studies, and numerous illustrations from the author's wide experience as social worker and drama director. He is primarily concerned with the development of the individual, but believes that this is best achieved by successful production. The value of earned success necessitates hard work and high standards.

The author is particularly qualified by insight into human behavior and knowledge of the art of play production. His book offers valuable help to all teachers and drama directors who wish to make the "show" a more meaningful experience for actor and audience alike.

Dagny Blanchard
Elementary Consultant
Port Washington Schools

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER AT WORK. By George C. Kyte. N. Y. The Dryden Press. 1957. \$5.25.

The elementary school teacher of today faces a challenge and an opportunity that is unique. Never, in the history of American education, has the teacher been more sought after and better appreciated. The trend is one that emerges from the evolution of education in our communities and it is one that has taken a very definite form since the conclusion of World War II. In a very competently organized book, the author presents a concise and informative view of modern elementary education. The book has been written for use by students training to become elementary school teachers and for use by teachers already in the elementary school classrooms. Specific guidance for sound practice is offered and the book can serve both as a reference and as a guide for planning, performing, and evaluating elementary school programs. The results of recent research and of the thinking of leaders in the field have been adroitly woven into the text. The volume is a practical and yet far-sighted one.—Paul Zankowich

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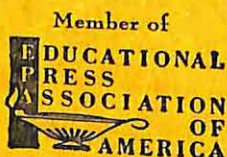
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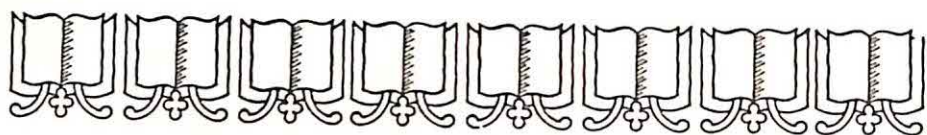
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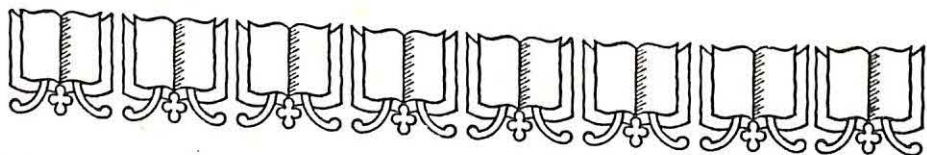
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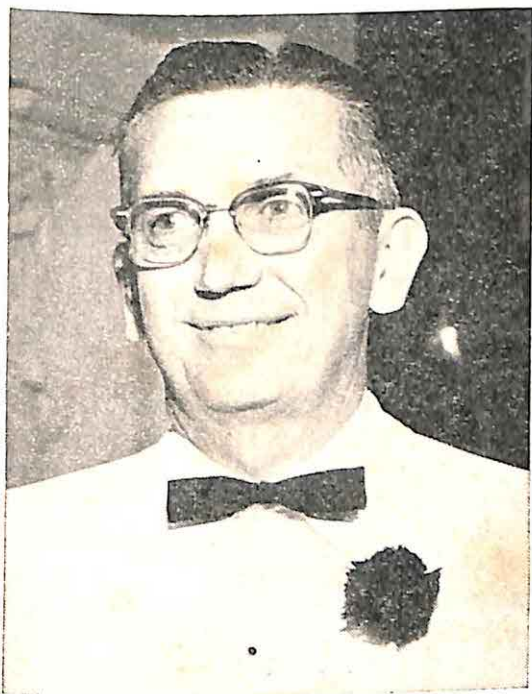
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DR. LYMAN V. GINGER



LYMAN V. GINGER, the first Kentuckian to hold the highest office of the National Education Association, began his term as the 97th president of the world's largest professional organization on July 5, 1957.

Dr. Ginger, who is dean of the College of Education at the University of Kentucky, Lexington, and who has had an outstanding record of service to the teaching profession, was elected president at the Association's Centennial convention in Philadelphia.

One of Dr. Ginger's first official acts as president was to head the NEA dele-

gation to the sixth annual conference of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WC-OTP) in Frankfurt, Germany, August 2-9.

He was for two years president of the Kentucky Education Association and a member of the Governor's Conference on Education, and has worked on state and national advisory education committees. He has been a classroom teacher in junior and senior high schools and was a principal of a 12-grade school. His teaching record also covers college teaching and administration. A graduate of Kentucky Wesleyan College, he holds a doctor's degree from the University of Kentucky.

Dr. Ginger has found time to work actively in community activities in addition to his busy professional and academic schedule. He has served as president of the Kiwanis Club, as a member of the YMCA Board, as an elder and Sunday School Superintendent in the Presbyterian Church.

He is a life member of the NEA, the Kentucky Education Association and the Kentucky Congress of Parents and Teachers, is a member of Phi Delta Kappa and Kappa Delta Pi. He is also a member of the Kentucky Departments of Elementary and Secondary Principals and of the NEA's Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

An Overlooked Cause of Mounting Juvenile Delinquency

By GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS

Editor, Highlights for Children
Honesdale, Pennsylvania

ACCORDING TO THE U. S. Children's Bureau, juvenile delinquency in 1955 increased for the seventh consecutive year. Since 1948 this increase has been 70%, while the child population increased only 16%. There also was a rather rapid increase of juvenile delinquency for many years previous to 1948.

This writer ventures to point out a big contributor to the upsurge in juvenile delinquency which has been almost wholly overlooked.

The usual array of causes given include broken homes, lack of adequate recreation facilities, slums, poverty, recent wars and fear of war, increasing mobility of population, overcrowded schools, portrayal of violence in many comic books, in movies and on the air, salacious literature, mental health problems, decline of religion in the home, and so on. Often they are summed up in "delinquent parents and delinquent communities." Few would doubt that all of these have made some contribution to delinquency and crime, though opinions differ as to the relative force of each.

Into these and related causes, the U. S. Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency made rather extensive inquiries, and has recently published its findings (U. S. Government Printing Office), pretty much in line with earlier

publications on the subject. However, the report departs somewhat from a few of the usual theories and suggested areas for most promising efforts to reduce juvenile delinquency.

Recreation and Sport

While seeing more possibilities for recreation in the school and community, with adequate supervision and integration, the report questions some popular notions about recreation and sports for preventing and correcting juvenile delinquency. To quote:

"Proof that active or guided recreation itself prevents delinquency, or that its absence causes misbehavior is lacking Careful studies have shown in fact that delinquents are generally more interested and skillful in games and sports than nondelinquents. They have been shown to have more frequent club affiliations, even in alleged character-building agencies and they are more adept at leadership in their group affiliations. In the real sense, the delinquent is on the average considerably more socialized than are his nondelinquent contemporaries. In fact, it is partly through his group interests and activities that he gets into trouble in the first place

"(1) Being a good athlete is no deterrent at all to delinquency; (2) experience in team play through recreation can have no significant

amount of carryover to general character traits or conduct patterns; (3) even highly organized recreational activities do not absorb enough of the energy or time of the child to at least appreciably decrease his opportunities to engage in delinquency; (4) in fact, a play group may itself help to stimulate its members to illegal activities engaged in for fun after the games are over."

Poverty and Crime

The report pooh-poohs the still widely popular notion that poverty and living on the wrong side of the tracks are major causes of juvenile delinquency. To quote:

"The economic system is not the cause for crime, but it is the reason many times why poor people are the ones found in prison. Crime in every form, from homicide to petty larceny, exists among the wealthiest and the poorest . . . If poverty were the cause of delinquency, we should be singularly free of it in comparison with other nations. We are not . . .

"Conditions of prosperity alone do not, it would seem conduce to the reduction of delinquency. On the contrary . . . rates of delinquency are highest in periods of extreme prosperity."

The Family

If juvenile delinquency is to be curbed, the Subcommittee holds, "it must come largely through the medium of the family . . . Better children can come only from better homes." Granting the importance of wise choice in marriage by prospective parents, the chief hope held out by the Subcommittee is in adequate community staffs of psychiatrists, psychiatric and social workers, and other counsellors to help parents who are "disturbed, insecure, neurotic" or badly mated to do pretty well in spite of these handicaps. Like-

wise for helping maladjusted and disturbed children so they may not become delinquents or may recover from delinquency.

"The importance of the emotional health of the parents of delinquent children has not been sufficiently emphasized, in the opinion of the committee." Indeed, the report seems to make emotional disturbance in parents and children far more important than any other matter related to juvenile delinquency.

For example, the report gives the impression that vandalism comes chiefly from emotional disturbances in children and youth. There's no suggestion that lack of healthy inhibitions might have anything to do with it. Indeed, there's no mention of adequate early home discipline in the child's early years for curbing vandalism, or any other type of delinquency in him when he's older.

The impression given is that with enough help for parents and children by psychiatrists, psychologists, psychiatric and social workers and other similar experts, to clear up inner disturbances, there would be practically no anti-social behavior in children and youths.

All such professional help should have some good effect, of course. But this turning the matter over to "George" is a comforting plan for many parents and teachers, letting them wash their hands of responsibilities. "Don't hold parents responsible at all for the behavior of their children" seems to be the tenor of the whole report by the Senate Subcommittee. This is in line with what some psychiatrists and other mental health experts have been saying in recent years to many leading edu-

cators who, in turn, have passed these ideas on to teachers and parents.

In recent years when a local or state legislative body considers the passage of laws holding parents responsible for their children, the leading opponents have been welfare leaders and parent educators. They argue usually that such a law would increase antagonism between the wayward child and his parents. Proponents of such legislation hold, on the other hand, that if parents are held responsible for the vandalism, for example, and other crimes by their children against property, other parents of younger children will tend to discipline these children better in relation to the rights and possessions of others. Last year, in spite of the do-gooders, the New York State legislature did pass such a law and the governor signed it. One reads in the papers occasionally of a judge who actually fines parents for the depredations of their children.

Of course we need more mental health experts for dealing with emotionally disturbed parents and disturbed children, but we need more of them who integrate their ideas in the ways of living and learning together in the home and school.

Nothing in the foregoing is meant to suggest that emotional disturbances in children and parents are not factors which contribute to juvenile delinquency. I'm merely questioning the growing tendency to give them first place and to assume they are entities which can be dealt with more or less apart from the whole range of activities and experiences of the persons who have these disturbances.

Lack of Self-Control

Some writers on the behavior of juvenile delinquents do say these children

lack self-control, but seem to imply that self-control is to be gained by some vague magic force within. But doesn't self-control from within presuppose earlier control from without? And isn't the foundation for parental control most easily established in the child's early years?

Most juvenile delinquents have got beyond the control of their parents. Parents are unlikely to be able to control the teen-ager who had not been effectively controlled by them at ten, six or two. Even at ten or six, some children are beyond the control of their parents who could not manage them effectively at two. A parent who at any time feels his child is getting out of hand must himself suffer considerably from emotional disturbances. And won't the child, also?

Many parents whose children at fifteen, ten or three are out of hand, have supposed that practically all the experts on child rearing had been saying that parents should not restrain the young child when they easily could have done so; that these experts had warned against restraining the little child lest he become a frustrated and emotionally disturbed person with warped personality; and that even to give the tot any physical pain to restrain him would be brutal. Indeed, what these parents have heard and read for years, or suppose they have heard and read, is that they should aim to let the tot do about as he pleases and hope to guide him effectively only through persuasive ways, especially as he grows more able to reason. Granted that he grows with age more able to reason, this is no proof that he will easily be persuaded to behave in desirable ways. His practice at having his way so long has been growing in the meanwhile, causing him more

strongly to resist most appeals to reason. Paradoxically, most public school teachers of family life courses are it seems still teaching teen-age girls, the mothers of tomorrow, that the tot at home should not be restrained, certainly never spanked, only loved and reasoned with.

Now that many youngsters eight, twelve or fourteen are beyond control, their parents are being scolded for not managing them better. Consider all the frustrated and emotionally disturbed parents who are being told they should now stiffen up in discipline of their older children, who have been unrestrained for years and years. And mind you, some of these very same "experts" had entreated these parents only a few years back not to restrain their children when the parents very easily could have restrained them. One might ask, To what degree has the rank and file of

child experts been responsible for a lot of youths having no self-control and for a lot of emotionally disturbed children and parents?

Begin at the Crib to Curb Delinquency

It's my guess that the long-prevailing theory and practice of letting little children do about as they please is more responsible by far than any other single factor, for the appalling prevalence and upsurge of juvenile delinquency.

If we are to see a decline in juvenile delinquency twelve or fifteen years hence, we will have to bring back the palms to the home nursery and teach and train the tot long before he enters school the unambiguous meaning of No in a family atmosphere of love and understanding; nor shall we withdraw these controls faster than the child, as he grows older, is able to control himself adequately.

to grow. The very act of vocalizing words of skill and artistry makes John aware of their potentialities and of effectiveness in speech.

Pleasure Often Attained by Listening

Laura, on the other hand, prefers to listen. She loves to have Miss Smith read stories aloud. It's best of all when all the boys and girls close books and do not try to follow trails of print. Miss Smith is really restful. She never crowds her reading into close parentheses of time as if a waiting bus would leave in just two minutes. The teacher's voice is soft and warm and sunshine-filled, and words take on attractive forms because Miss Smith is saying them. The happy way she looks at boys and girls when she begins to read reveals to all that here will be adventure into pleasantness, a talking kind of music. And like the time when Johnny got the measles, everybody gets that way. *Euphony* the big folks call the sounds that never plod in mud or splash one disagreeably. They glide along and soothe one like a lullaby, and yet one does not wish to sleep; he desires, instead, to listen to the teacher who is able to communicate her love for what she reads.

Unfavorable Attitudes Sometimes Built

Mr. Jackson isn't one bit that way. He seems to blow his voice right through his nose as if he didn't know the normal route that voices take. He never seems to use the alley of his throat. And somehow sounds get squeezed into unpleasant shapes, and pretty words grow bent and twisted, the way trees do sometimes. The children in his room think that oral reading isn't really nice at all. And Miss Arnett is not too helpful, either. Why, she has such a mild voice that when she reads of lions, they seem like

butterflies instead, and things get all mixed up again. And Mr. Timkins is so pompous he makes little fishes talk like whales.

Art of Oral Reading Slighted

Perhaps it is because teachers have been so trained in literary probing, dissection, and analysis that they have overlooked to large extent the art of oral reading. Certainly one often sees the effects of an education which has paid too little attention to the area of oral interpretation so needed in our schools. How true it is that speech class rarely lures the needy, for who will willingly walk into a daily class of seeming torture when credits can be had an easier way? Thus the good at speech grow better, and the poor don't grow at all.

Need for Careful Selection

Miss Truett has a lovely voice that makes them feel the freshness ushered in by summer rain, but Susie cannot now enjoy her fully. One day the story that Miss Truett read was quite embarrassing, Susie felt, though it held nothing vulgar. Yet the teacher had somehow violated sensitivity by vocalizing thoughtlessly material too personal for listening by all. Susie could not put it into words, but she somehow felt Miss Truett lacking in that insight and sympathetic understanding so needed in one who helps to solve the problems of the children whom she guides. Truly boys and girls have sensitivities that are offended when they hear their inmost thoughts voiced boldly, thoughts and happenings exposed that almost seem like theirs, and which they would prefer to keep for privacy.

Variety of Interpretation Needed

When Mr. Talbot reads a selection to

the class, he insists that everyone sees it his way, even though his vision is impaired by years of paper work. He won't admit that there's another way. Yet all the time he reads and as the children listen, they build word-pictures, too, and meaning takes on different form for them. Sometimes, too, they ask among themselves, "Can't Mr. Talbot ever be wrong?" But no one dares to say the answer known by all. So they listen dully, their initiative cut off. When children have an eagerness to share their viewpoint, however, they tend to listen closely and appreciatively.

Oral Reading as a Complement to Silent Reading

Mary likes it best when oral reading is the climax to the silent reading, to the study she has made for purposes of gaining insight. By this time she has come to realize significance of words, and so has been prepared for oral interpretation.

Most boys and girls, when in a sympathetic, permissive atmosphere, seem to find the act of reading aloud themselves brings to them an auditory and kinaesthetic pleasure—a pleasure so rewarding that it feeds their fondness for silent reading, too, and nourishes their understanding. This subsequently grows into ability to interpret with effectiveness when they are by themselves.

When children come to see that oral reading is a means to interpretation, they tend to realize to some degree its usefulness to them, and seriously attempt to better those reading skills so needed in both areas.

Good Judgment Needed in Assigning Poetry

Since true interpretation calls for the loss of neither thought nor feeling, it

is difficult to attain. Teachers sometimes feel they make it all too easy for the children when they read aloud themselves; thus when the unit deals with poetry, they make assignments to be read at home. Yet, like Joe in reading class, this is not good. If there is silent reading to be done for homework, perhaps it should relate itself to problems arising from the poem, to furthering the understanding of the background of the poetry through study of the writer or of the period in which he lived or in which the piece of literature is placed.

Importance of Good Listening

The fact that listening is a fundamental tool can never be overlooked. As Mrs. Wilson reads expressively, adapting tone and rate to mood of what she reads, the children come to listen with a consciousness of sound. Although they are not ready yet, perhaps, to put it into words, they are developing awareness to the qualities of sound, like length and roundness. Marcia likes the long tones best because they seem so strong to her and positive; Tim is thrilled with roundness that makes him think of doughnuts. Similarly, others with awareness awakened can be stimulated to listen more keenly to the literature they read when they are by themselves. To most of them the printed page now takes on round and resonant proportions, instead of staying flat and silent.

Karen finds it difficult to handle symbols that are meaningless to her. She fumbles, mumbles, stumbles until she comes to Miss Green's room. Miss Green leads her to pastures verdant as the teacher's name, for she attaches meaning to the symbols causing trouble. Sometimes to exemplify the word, she shows the children pictures of concrete

objects related to the meaning. She draws upon experience, and has everyone sharing eagerly.

Once Karen understands the meaning of a symbol, her reading rate is bettered, and she thinks reading's fun. If she knows words for what they mean, she's not afraid to speak them out before the class. Thus it is generally recognized that a close relationship exists between emotional response and sensory image. If the child is little stirred, the image is vague; if he is deeply moved, the image tends to be exact and clear.

Difficulties Caused by Over-Concern

Kenneth likes to know the meaning of expressions, too, but doesn't like the thoroughness with which Miss Fulbrook undertakes her explanations. It makes him think of how his mother cooked a turkey once. In her concern, she baked and baked it until it dried and fell apart. It's nice to have the teacher show by pause or emphasis or writing on the board what new words mean, but Kenneth gets involved in constant explanations to such degree that he forgets to put parts back into the story—and grows annoyed at interruptions breaking into thoughts he wants to follow.

Significance of Movement

Michele delights in finding how the movement in the lines contributes to the meaning. Miss Booth reads so expressively that almost anyone can see. Michele thinks of movement and the part it plays when reading to herself. She senses then the mournful tread of tragedy, the swiftness of a frightened bird. Once the words were all so whirling that she felt as if she'd just stepped off a merry-go-round, but it was fun to feel that way. And when Miss Booth

was reading yesterday, her vivid words and breathless tones made Michele seem to sense the mad rush of a plane in flight, when actually she's never been in one. Truly, Miss Booth has a camera voice. It takes pictures, then shows them to the group.

Comprehension Difficulties Noted

Hilda reads out loud quite easily, yet when Mr. Williams asks her questions concerning what she's read, she grows quite puzzled and confused, and can't quite say what she's supposed to. Mr. Williams speaks of comprehension difficulties—and Hilda and Ruth and others, too, who do not find the meaning readily, agree to work together afterwards, with Mr. William's help, and they will have a special goal that's all their own—to understand material which they read. They want to do it, too, because they know that this will help them greatly, both in and out of school.

Different Skills Required for Poetry and Prose

Mr. Henry makes them laugh sometimes because he looks so funny when he is surprised. He wears his eyebrows high when Glenda starts to read. He remembers that she reads prose well—then grows so startled when she trips on meter. Too often we believe falsely that because a child reads prose well, he necessarily reads poetry with similar skill. Yet this is not so, for his ability to deal with word-order, arrangement, figurative language is not so challenged in the field of prose.

Good Oral Reading Appreciated

Miss Greenhoe's room is filled with fervent little readers, yet she sees values still in reading aloud to them despite

the freedom of their silent reading. She knows that they'll respond to oral language far more readily and at a higher level than if they were to read the full time independently. She uses this technique as if it were a ladder, and has the children climb to higher levels.

Possibilities of Choral Reading

Choral reading is another way of gaining interest in the oral, for boys and girls gain courage in their reading when they feel security in others reading, too. The fact that husky boys participate with willingness in many instances gives prestige to this form of reading. Experience indicates that if we can get the interest of the boys, the girls, also, show interest, for they tend to like those things that boys like, yet this is not the case when the situation is reversed.

Ralph especially likes choral reading. He feels that he participates in something bigger than himself, and in perfecting the interpretation, he tends to gain appreciation for it. Ralph likes to know the words and what they mean. In this way he gains mastery of thought and sees the thought in units. But choral reading is an area so broad it lends itself to pages rather than to paragraphs.

He also sees that there are values in

recordings which allow selections to be listened to at will—excellent when one is studying enunciation and interpretation.

Order of Procedure Significant

In the matter of silent and oral reading, the order of procedure is of great importance, for, just as in our cultural heritage, marriage should precede the bearing of children, so in our educational practices, silent reading should precede the oral.

Both Approaches Necessary

Yet is it not easy to see that both approaches are needed? that each is supplementary to the other? For information or for pleasure, for speed or for reflection—silent reading; for appreciation of sound, for entertainment, for diagnosis, for identification of mood—the oral. Truly, when reading to ourselves, we learn to listen and to hear; when reading to others, we learn to show the close relationship between the mood and meaning. Each holds its own set of values; each, like the universe, calls for order in procedure. Therefore one without the other is incomplete—a philosophy upon which life itself is based.

Developing Library Skills— Every Teacher's Responsibility

By JUNE BERRY

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IS YOUR SCHOOL library a familiar friend? Do your students work there, receive help there, and use the various tools there as skillfully as pen and pencil? Or do your students picture the library as a mysterious collection of books, foreign and uninviting both in content and arrangement?

Need for Library Skills

Reports from colleges and universities indicate that the average freshman is deficient in the library skills and knowledge he needs to do satisfactory research. Do you remember your own undergraduate work? Did you waste precious hours looking for materials before you "caught on" to library arrangement and procedures? Or did you get along the best you could without using the library? Unfortunately, many of your students will be handicapped in their higher education. They will get along the best they can without using their college libraries.

Those who miss college will receive even less library experience, and, in one respect, they are the ones who need it more critically. Whereas college students will be taught to search for truth, to think straight, and to make wise decisions, those who terminate their

studies at high school graduation often terminate their intellectual growth at the same point. Adults in general are ignoring the excellent materials and services offered by their public libraries; they do not have the library habit because they failed to develop it in their school days. They too get along the best they can without seeking accurate and up-to-date information from their libraries.

Integration in All Classes

Since today's schools rarely include library science in the curriculum, the library skills must be integrated with other class instruction if they are to be acquired at all.

Although such instruction has traditionally been a part of the English or Language Arts program, there are valid reasons for integrating library usage with all subjects. First, English teachers have been burdened with so many "extras" that they are often hard-pressed to cover their basic course of study. Secondly, library instruction which is integrated with all classes will be more extensive. All the teachers in the school *in toto* are able to present more library instruction in one year than the English teachers can possibly do alone in the

same period. Last, and most important, certain library tools are definitely adapted to different classes. For example, the best place to teach the use of the *Chemical Dictionary* is in the chemistry class when the need arises. Few students will remember the *Chemical Dictionary* presented incidentally in their English class along with the *Art Index*, *Familiar Quotations*, and the *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*.

A glance at any text or course of study will reveal opportunities for library instruction. All classes in which students give reports, write papers, or, in reality, all classes in which supplementary activities are planned, and in which assignments are made outside the textbook can be better classes through proper use of the library.

Examples of Integrated Library Instruction

Every course in the curriculum should demand constant use of at least one basic library tool: the card catalog. That such a situation exists in most schools is evidenced by the fact that most students do possess the basic knowledge that books are listed by author, title, and subject.

But greater value is gained with greater familiarity, and greater knowledge by greater use. For example, a home economics teacher may use the library and its card catalog to show students how to find books on party planning. If the students are already partially familiar with the card catalog, they may be introduced to the use of cross references and subject analytics. They are shown additional information on parties listed under "Games," "Food," and "Etiquette." Such books as *Meal Planning and Table Service*, *Your Manners are Showing*, and *Miss Behavior*

will be discovered. The girls will learn more intricate details and values of the card catalog while they obtain additional information on their subject.

Probably next in importance to the card catalog, and next in extent to which it is used by all classes, is the encyclopedia. Since children begin to use encyclopedias in the upper elementary grades and continue through college, they may be exposed to more technical use during each succeeding year. Thus, students who have a general knowledge of encyclopedias may be taught that cross references help them to find more information, that indexes are valuable for the same purposes, and that some articles have bibliographies at the end which refer to even more materials.

For example, let us consider a health class studying a unit in which each student reports on a different disease. Before library instruction has opened his eyes to the full use of encyclopedias, the student looks up the subject, "Small Pox," and notes that information. But after the class learns to use indexes and cross references, he finds further references to "Edward Jenner," "Cow Pox," and "Vaccination." The bibliography at the end of the article may refer him to a certain book which the library has, and he obtains it too. Not only is his knowledge of the disease broadened through this experience, but also his concept of encyclopedia use.

The *Reader's Guide* is another valuable tool for finding information on any subject and should be utilized by every course in the school. From conservation of natural resources and analysis of foreign policy, to modern art and behavior on dates, invaluable references are found in the *Reader's Guide*.

Even mathematics classes may be closely related to library use, at least

those in which the teacher is not tied to the textbook. A modern teacher who supplements the text with practical and life-like situations may well give a short lesson on the Dewey Decimal System when decimals are studied or reviewed. Or he may refer to the card catalog or encyclopedia for information on famous men in mathematics or the importance of mathematics in everyday life. Research on mathematicians may be extended to the biographical indexes, *Who's Who*, *Webster's Biographical Dictionary*, and *Current Biography*.

Of course, speech and English classes make extensive use of biographical dictionaries as well as card catalog, encyclopedias, and *Reader's Guide*. But again, this is the logical place to introduce another library tool—the special index. The *Index to Poetry*, *The Short Story Index*, or *The Drama Index* may be used to expand and to enrich literature lessons. Instead of reading only selections in the text, students may be assigned poems or stories which are located through the indexes offered by the library.

These examples could be extended to all areas of the curriculum. But the point is that library instruction fits into any subject in the curriculum and that alert teachers may readily recognize spots in their programs for possible integration.

Procedures for Integrating Instruction

When a unit involving library instruction has been chosen, the teacher might first consult others teaching the same course in the school. Together they may plan tentatively the desirable length of time and amount of instruction needed and coordinate their lessons and probable assignments.

After this preliminary consultation, the teachers are prepared to discuss the

unit or lesson with the librarian. This is a vital part of the library lesson and determines whether or not the instruction will be really effective. Four steps are involved:

1. Scheduling the library for the day or days necessary.
2. Deciding who should teach the lessons.
3. Discussing how much instruction the class has already had.
4. Determining whether this will be a review of certain library tools or a completely new area of knowledge.

It is generally considered desirable to teach the library skills in the library itself. The students not only become better acquainted with the library and its values for school work, but also learn the location of the tools and are more likely to remember it for future use.

Of course, there are times and conditions when library instruction is necessarily given in the classroom. For example, certain skills will be taught by bringing library tools to the classroom and discussing them there; the library-study hall situation may prevent groups from visiting the library; and in some schools, the library must be closed during certain hours because of part-time librarians. In these circumstances, classroom instruction is better than no instruction.

Whether teacher or librarian should give the instruction is unimportant. Although concern has been given to this question in the past, school library authorities now agree that the instruction is important, not the instructor. Cooperative planning will solve this problem. Situations may result in which the librarian teaches one tool one day and the teacher another the following day. Local conditions and qualifications of both classroom teacher and library

teacher should determine who teaches the lessons. Regardless of who presents the formal instruction, the other is always there as an assistant and a co-teacher.

Perhaps the most important point for teachers and librarians to consider is the limitation of subject matter. Instruction must not be so comprehensive as to overwhelm the children, but it must be complete enough to serve their needs and to stay with them.

To fulfill these requirements, the teacher must remember one rule—to teach only the library tools which are necessary to complete the class assignments at hand. The librarian, in her earnest desire to tell the world about her wares, may be inclined to include more information than is necessary to meet the immediate needs of the particular class. It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher to clarify objectives and limit the skills to be taught.

A careful study of previous library usage and instruction will determine the starting point for the lesson. Has this class had any library work this year? Or last year? Do these students need a complete orientation to the library? Or will a brief review of the card catalog and library arrangement suffice?

Methods and materials will enter the discussion and will, of course, depend on the desires of the particular teacher. A work sheet or drill exercise may be valuable for some lessons. The librarian often has a supply of ready-made work sheets, or the teacher may wish to construct some which are more applicable to his needs.

Motivation plays a vital role in library instruction, especially if the students have mistaken or unhealthy attitudes toward the library. The teacher prepares his class for the library visit in the same manner he prepares them

for a field trip. He may even wish to introduce certain library tools in the classroom previous to the visit. He will remind the students of their library manners, and perhaps review a few important and pertinent library rules.

Thus the lesson is launched, and the students learn to work with additional educational equipment.

Summary

Boys and girls have the right to be taught all the skills and knowledge that the school can offer. One skill necessary for high school work, for college studies, and for intelligent adult living is library use.

Library skills have been particularly neglected because most schools have no regular course in library science (and probably should not have, since the library's true function is to supplement other classwork, not to be an end in itself.) In addition, school libraries are relatively recent, and many schools still lack centralized libraries and trained librarians. The situation is further complicated by the unfortunate fact that many children will never enter any library unless motivated by the classroom teacher.

Because of these circumstances, the classroom teacher is the key to library instruction. If he fails to open the door to library usage for his students, it may never be opened.

The challenge to teachers is obvious. They must look into their texts, into their teaching to see where library use may be integrated with their subjects. It is the teacher's responsibility to acquaint boys and girls with the essential library resources and skills to fulfill their immediate academic needs, to supplement their classroom work, and to acquire the library habit for future use.

Reading: A Clear *and* Present Danger

By E. J. JOSEY

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AN EXAMINATION and comparison of the Delaware State College Library's circulation figures revealed that there had been 55.5 per cent increase in the home circulation over last year. This is a healthy growth in library use. Such an increase indicates that the faculty of Delaware State College is encouraging the use of books in their teaching program.

We must confess that we are pleased with this trend. However, circulation figures are quantitative and not qualitative. Circulation figures *per se* do not reveal what books were drawn from the library for the sheer joy of reading. One is not able to tell if a student has been inspired to read a book because he has heard a professor casually mention it in conversation on the campus or in conference. Because we have had a tremendous increase in circulation, can the faculty and library staff relax and ignore the reading interests of our students? My answer is no.

One of the goals of the Delaware State College Library is to inculcate a love for books and reading for pleasure. The library staff decided that one way to determine if the faculty and library staff were fulfilling this goal of inculcating a love for books and reading for pleasure was by making a study of the use made of books circulated from the library.

During a two-week period, February 18 through March 4, 1957, the library staff attempted to ascertain the number of students checking out books from the college library for recreational or voluntary reading. This period was chosen because it was the beginning of the first phase of the new semester, a period when the students were not busy with term papers and other required reading assignments. The students were not informed of the purpose of the study.

Each student who borrowed books from the college library was asked to fill out a slip giving his name, classification, age, sex, call numbers of books, etc. He was asked to indicate if the books were for course assignment or recreational reading. Members of the library staff rather than student assistants remained on duty at the Circulation Desk during this period to make sure that the students were listing only recreational titles and not required reading assignments.

A study of the recreational reading interests of a student body of 241 students over a short period of two weeks is limited in its findings. In a sense the number of titles read by students constitute a quantitative rather than a qualitative measure. However, a sampling of two weeks can be an index to the extent of recreational reading done by our students. During the period of the study

52 students charged books out for recreational reading.

A breakdown by classification of the 52 students who charged out books for recreational reading reveals that the freshmen students comprised the largest number (17), sophomore class second with 16 students, the junior class third with 12 students and the seniors trailing last with 7 students. If we view these findings as being truly indicative of recreational reading at our institution, we can deduce that as the student advances in college he does less reading. As a rationalization for the poor showing of the senior class, we must hasten to point out that the seniors were doing practice teaching during this period and some of them were living off campus.

A comparison by sex reveals a slight difference of interest in recreational reading; the figures were 24 female and 28 male. The total number of students who read for recreational purposes comprised about 21 percent of the student body (or about one-fifth).

A total of 92 books were read for recreational reading during this period. An analysis of the subject categories of these books indicates that there was a preponderance of fiction reading. Fiction was first with 19 titles, Arts and Recreational and Social Science tied second with 17 titles each, the pure sciences third with 12 titles, and other subject areas represented by the Dewey Decimal Classification ranked from 10 to 1.

It appears that the increased circulation stems from the faculty's teaching methods which draw upon library materials. In other words, very little volun-

tary or recreational reading was being done. The implications and ramifications for the Delaware State College library are obviously apparent: The library must continue to stimulate reading through book displays and exhibitions in order to advertise our wares (books) and should continue the sponsorship of the Library Cultural Series,¹ thus creating an interest in the joys and pleasures of recreational reading.

Arthur T. Hamlin,² University Librarian of the University of Cincinnati, writes, "It must be emphasized that the college or university library is the book center of the institution, and its achievements are as much the responsibility of the teaching faculty as of the library staff." We concur with Mr. Hamlin that the success of the college library, along with its responsibility for the encouragement of reading for the joy of reading, depends upon an all-college effort. The library will not be able to fulfill this important function without the cooperation of the faculty.

At this point, you are probably gravely concerned with the responsibility that you and I have to encourage more reading, when we consider the fact that only 21 per cent of our students spend their leisure time reading. Do not be too alarmed at our showing here at Delaware State College for the following reason: About two years ago, the American Institute of Public Opinion surveyed the reading habits of the American people. At that time they found only 17 per cent of the adult population reading a book. This was a sorry contrast to the percentage in other coun-

1. See Josey, E. J. "A College Library's Cultural Series." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, 30:167-168, June 1956.

2. Hamlin, Arthur T. "The Role of the College Library in Adult Reading." 55th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 2, University of Chicago Press, 1956. P. 136-156.

tries: Canada, 31 per cent, Australia, 34 per cent, England, 55 per cent.

Yet, we cannot take comfort in the fact that our campus population is 4 per cent over the national average, for we are a community of scholars and should be readers. A special study of college graduates revealed that five out of every six had not read a book outside of their fields of special interest during the preceding several months. The foregoing statistics reveal the cultural lag that is abroad in the land. It is our responsibility as librarians and faculty members to tackle this problem. We cannot solve the problem nationally. But, we can do our bit in our colleges.

If librarians and faculty members in our colleges assume the responsibility of inculcating the love of books and interest in reading, our students after graduation will continue the reading habit throughout their adult life. Thus, we will have made a significant contribution to our country. The lack of interest in voluntary or recreational reading is a clear and present danger. The American man or woman who does not read is unable to perform his duties as a responsible citizen in a democracy.

As a responsible citizen in a country

that has grown to be the moral leader of the free world in the 1950's, one must not ignore with a shrug of the shoulder, the inequalities and inequities which still prevail in our land; one must not shirk his obligation to participate in local and national elections; one must recognize the importance of our continuing aid to less fortunate nations since we are the wealthiest nation on the face of the globe; one must be cognizant of the divergent points of view of our allies in the historical context rather than casting these people off with a flippant remark, "Oh, those British or French"; and moreover, an informed citizenry and especially college graduates must be sensitive and curious to the ever-changing world about them. Only the informed citizen who keeps abreast in his reading is aware of the importance of the aforementioned requisites. In order to live in this Atomic Age and participate effectively as an intelligent citizen of these United States and the world community, it is imperative for the informed citizen to have an ongoing interest in reading. This librarian asserts that a continuing lifetime interest in reading must develop through a program of voluntary reading in college.

Reading: Now *and* Then

By EMMETT ALBERT BETTS
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IN MY TRAVELS across our country these past two years, I find more parents concerned about how reading is taught than at any other time in my thirty-five years in this field. They ask: "Why isn't reading taught as well as when I was in school?" "Why are there more poor readers in school today?" "How can we be sure that our children are being taught right?"

Evidence of Achievement

While popular opinion holds that reading is not taught as well today as it was in father's or grandfather's day, the facts do not support this notion. More than 100 studies have been made to compare school achievement now and then. It has been possible to give our children today the same examinations used as far back as 1846. Therefore, the achievement of the present generation can be compared with the achievement of us oldsters—whether we went to school in 1905, 1916, 1924, 1928, 1931, or 1939. Take your choice.

The evidence indicates that the present generation of children is superior in the three R's to their parents and grandparents. They read more books and they read them faster and with better understanding.

Time-tinted Memories

Many people who insist that reading was better taught in the good old days than it is today are laboring under an old oaken bucket delusion. They remem-

ber the vine-covered well, the moss-laden bucket, and the flavor of cool water. But they have forgotten the calloused hands and the labor of hauling up a heavy bucket and carrying it up to the kitchen. They have dropped out of memory all things not touched with joy.

So it is with father and grandfather. They remember only their favorite teachers, books, friends, and games. They have no traces of memory for their classmates who did not learn to read and, therefore, dropped out of school. They have forgotten the cold fact that less than half of their grammar school class was graduated from high school.

From Yesteryear

If a superior job of teaching reading was done in the good old days, why are we bogged down with so many oldsters who seek our help? Many doctors and lawyers slug their way through their college books, but years later, come to us for help. Business executives—both young and old—beg us to help them to become good enough readers to hold their jobs. It is impossible for us to believe that yesterday's schools did the job as well as time-tinted memories lead some people to believe.

Teachers, parents, and business men are more aware of reading disabilities today than they ever have been. Furthermore, teachers, psychologists, vision specialists, and others are more likely to identify a child with a reading handicap today. Children with reading prob-

lems have always been in the schools, but they either quit school or were considered stupid. So there probably has been no increase in the number of non-readers and retarded readers, but more of them are being helped.

Those who prejudice what is being done in schools of today, need to visit their children's classrooms. They will see seven-year olds who can read third-grade books and eight-year olds who can read the *Reader's Digest*. They will also see fifth graders who can read *The Atlantic Monthly* with superior comprehension at rates of more than 800 words a minute. In short, they can find many good reasons for accenting the positive.

Beyond the Status Quo

Certainly the teaching of reading

needs to be improved. So does the teaching of arithmetic, and science, and history. And there is a need for improving health service in schools, so that more children are detected with faulty visual skills, impaired hearing, brain injuries, and other defects that block learning. None of us can justify the *status quo*; that is why research is done.

Fortunately, there are many school systems—such as Kenosha, Wisconsin; Portsmouth, Virginia; and El Dorado, Arkansas—where long-term attempts to improve the teaching of reading are being made. There is no simple solution because there is more than one reason why many children are excellent readers, some are retarded readers, and a few are non-readers.

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The Rôle of the Curriculum Co-ordinator

By JAMES M. LAING

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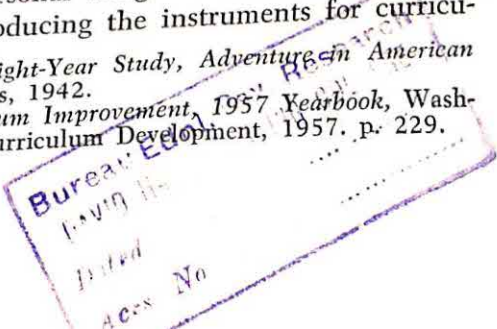
"CURRICULUM", that illusive term that has been bandied about from author to author in educational publications has gone through numerous phases of interpretation. It once meant the cloistered, "straight-laced" subject-matter taught in the sacred confines of four classroom walls. It was a body of information produced and organized by a few selected individuals with a long list of degrees after their names. Once produced it came to the classroom teacher in the form of a thick directive and labeled by implication as "top secret" material which was not to be divulged to either students or teachers in other subject-matter areas. A second phase was much like the first except that the "fraternity" of experts was enlarged and each school district produced its own directive which was given to teachers in the same secret way.

Co-incidentally with the publication of the results of the Eight Year Study,¹ an "epidemic" of workshops broke out in numerous teacher training institutions of the country. Teachers were brought in from many districts to develop resource units to take back home for distribution to other teachers. There was little concern about the fact that those who were to use the units were

not consulted on the construction, or that those producing them were more concerned about picking up three or four college credits to apply on their salary increment than they were about developing an instrument that would provide a better learning experience for children. More recently, the trend has been to provide released time for a teacher representative in each subject so that a semester can be spent producing or revising a course of study.

There is no intention in this article to imply that these phases of curriculum development have not been productive of better teaching. Their objectives have been commendable and they have served the teacher well. The point should be made, however, that the emphasis has been misplaced. All of these phases have taken the initiative out of the hands of the classroom teacher. Alexander Frazier gives emphasis to this point in the statement, "The soundest basis for improved instruction is participation by teachers in this process of self-study. The more numerous such local working groups, the better the chances for bringing about real changes in teaching based on the development of needed new personal insights."² The mechanics of producing the instruments for curriculum

1. Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study, Adventure in American Education*, Vol. 1. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942.
2. Alexander Frazier, *Research for Curriculum Improvement, 1957 Yearbook*, Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1957. p. 229.



lum improvement has been divorced from the classroom where active reshaping of the learning process should be a major objective. Even the workshop approach is not a real "team" enterprise without the utilization of some form of the action research concept.

Co-operation

A re-arrangement of an old philosophy of curriculum development could well be undertaken at this point. The old philosophy, as it was applied in practice gave support to the promise that academic course design was the sole responsibility of the specialist, that it should be "unveiled" fullblown, and that there should never be fraternization between the specialist and the practitioner or teacher. The new concept might be prefaced by the principle that curriculum improvement is most productive when the specialists involved think of themselves as service people rather than production experts. Under this principle, the curriculum expert on the state level would not consider himself the "builder of a better mouse trap to whose door all should beat their way." Rather he should be constantly moving from school district situation to school district situation, advertising the fact that as a state representative he has access to certain teacher aids which can be made available to district curriculum co-ordinators as they determine the specific needs of their schools.

The county superintendent should be a "salesman" not merely an elected official. This is just as true when delegated authority is meager as when state law gives the county official much power. It is his business to seek admission to schools and "sell" teachers with the idea that he not only is there to serve

their needs but that he has the ability and the means for aiding them.

The curriculum co-ordinator of the city school district has precisely the same function as the state and county directors. The difference is in the scope of operation and in the ability to co-ordinate school programs within the system. It is in this closely knit situation that the most effective co-operative efforts toward improvement of instruction can be made. A popular trend of our present decade is to designate a staff member of a particular school as a curriculum co-ordinator. This is a key spot for "action" curriculum development. As was pointed out earlier in the article, the consultant can not take up quarters in an office and expect teachers to search him out. He must recognize that teachers have a scarcity of "extra" time, that teachers do not always know where to go for help to improve their teaching, and that teachers are reluctant to utilize time in a trial-and error effort to improve instruction. He must make it known that he is ready and able to supply whatever assistance teachers need. He must make contact with teachers in their classrooms or at faculty meetings. He must inculcate the idea that it is not the curriculum co-ordinators purpose to "impose" but rather to "offer" and make assistance not only available but "professionally palatable." He should tap the resources of business enterprises for realistic learning experiences. He should have a file of free and inexpensive materials and display it and locate it where teachers can see and acquire it easily. All types of visual aids should be mobilized and made readily accessible. This would mean cutting to a minimum the "red tape" involved in film,

recordings, and slide procurement. Community resources should be explored and evaluated so teachers are not forced to "squander" time for such a purpose. These are but a few of the services the person responsible for curriculum improvement should be prepared to supply.

Summary

The theme of this article is a plea to discard the cumbersome vertical ap-

proach to curriculum development, and substitute a more flexible and positive horizontal philosophy in which the expert and the teacher coordinate their respective talents in a team effort toward instructional re-vitalization. The curriculum expert need not be discarded as obsolete, but rather his talents should be channeled into a more effective co-operative relationship with teachers, school administrators, and people of the community.

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Curriculum Guides—

Used *or* Abused?

By MAXWELL KUSHNER

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Philadelphia 41, Pennsylvania

THE CURRICULUM GUIDE is the core of our instructional program and it should have an exalted position for the teacher. The guide is a manual which suggests to the teacher what should be taught and how it should be taught. A guide is the modern approach toward curriculum improvement. It suggests and places faith in the teacher's ingenuity and judgment. A guide offers broad and varied curricular framework. A guide considers the individual.

The Missing Link

Time and time again, the following occurrence is found to be widespread in many school systems. There is an administrative announcement to the effect that such and such guide will soon be issued and placed at the teacher's disposal—well, the word "disposal" is disturbing, for the guide is disposed of. How? Well, it is usually given to the teacher who secretes it in a desk already overburdened with a flood of other printed matter.

These guides are valuable and very important. We cannot blame the teacher or the administrator. They do attempt to introduce and illustrate the use of the curriculum guides. However sincere most of the efforts are, they are still superficial and mere window dressings.

There is a missing link. The missing link which must be discovered is that which should occur between the introduction to the teacher and the teacher's utilization of the guide's content and philosophy. As one teacher said recently, "There was a time when every teacher knew his course of study, but now, I don't know what happens but we never seem to get to it." This remark has many implications. Many systems are becoming aware of the oversight on the part of all in utilizing and implementing their curriculum guides. Evidence of this concern lies in the numerous statements now emanating which specifically refer to the use of guides as the basis of evaluation and instruction.

It is worth quoting some of the sound philosophy of the curriculum improvement program of the Philadelphia Public Schools. It is because of such democratic and thoughtful policies listed below, that teachers become self-informed and willing to implement the guides.

"Instructional guides will be prepared by committees of teachers, principals, and other personnel. Consultant service for committees will be provided as needed."

"Instructional guides will be organized as to encourage such individuality in teaching as is appropriate to the schools of a democratic society."

"In order that teachers may feel reasonably secure in changing to new practices, differences in the rate of putting into effect new plans will be permissible; this policy, however, imposes a reciprocal responsibility on all schools and all personnel for cooperation in putting into effect adopted instructional guides."

In the preceding phrase, "IMPOSES A RECIPROCAL RESPONSIBILITY ON ALL SCHOOLS AND ALL PERSONNEL FOR COOPERATION IN PUTTING INTO EFFECT ADOPTED INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDES," we have the crux of our difficulty. The following questions were asked of various groups of teachers in many localities.

1. Are your guides easy to read?
2. Are your guides convenient to carry?
3. Do they offer good suggestions?
4. Are they written with the teacher in mind?
5. Do you have an opportunity to examine and study them together?
6. What should be done about introducing new guides?
7. What feature, if any, do you like about your guides?
8. What features do you dislike?
9. What can the administration do in regard to utilizing the guides?
10. If you had to introduce a guide, what techniques would you use?
11. How should we evaluate our guides?
12. Have you any reason for not referring to some guides.

Many revealing and significant replies were received in this sampling. An encyclopedic guide helps develop a good excuse for avoidance. In assembling a guide, we should keep the user in mind. The *Content* is important, but if we

ignore appearance, size and convenience, teachers will never get to the content.

All teachers stated that curriculum guides are valuable and do offer many excellent suggestions. Many have suggested that a subdivision of a guide into grade sections is effective.

Opinion shows that most guides are written with the teacher in mind, with teacher participation, contribution and evaluation. However, are we providing adequate opportunities to examine, study and introduce these guides to the teaching staff? This is an administrative and supervisory problem. Teachers seem to feel something is lacking in this aspect. A major complaint worth listening to is: there is so much printed material passing over our desks; there is such a great demand for teachers time on matters not related to instruction; there is so much extracurricular activity that the issuance of new curriculum guides is lost in the shuffle with other printed matter. A fast glimpse is taken of the cover, and the contents are rarely scrutinized. Can we expect teachers to be pedagogical sponges?

The art of teaching should return to a normal balance of instruction versus related activities. More and more we hear, "We just don't have time—we just don't have time." An administrative directive will only produce an acquiescent nod and the eventual placement of the guide with the other educational archives. The time has come for administration and staff to map a bold, intensive drive in regard to guide introduction and utilization. A one hour faculty meeting or a twenty minute talk by a specialist is not sufficient in enabling teachers to accept curriculum guides and adopt their recommended practices. If we are really interested in curriculum

growth and in-service improvement, a more dynamic program must be planned. It is tragic when magnificent curriculum improvement programs fail to get past the printed stage, into the use stage. We are certainly not negligent in regard to the research and intensive effort involved in formulating a new guide and yet there exists no intensive program for guide study. This is like making a diagnosis and then forbidding treatment.

A Plan of Action

Here is a suggested plan of action for guide production:

1. Involve teaching personnel in as many phases as is administrative-ly possible.
2. Content and suggestions should be based on research.
3. Use concrete, practical illustrations.
4. The type should be bold and easy to read.
5. An attractive cover and format is a must.
6. It should be easy to carry and utilize.
7. It should contain much practical information.
8. Bulk should be avoided, but if necessary, the guide should be broken down into grade sections.

Despite the satisfaction of all of these requirements, the purpose of a guide is to get its content across to the teachers concerned. The most perfectly prepared guide from a physical viewpoint is worth nothing, unless we remove the missing link of curriculum guide value, the problem of effective introduction and utilization. Present methods of introduction found in many schools consists of these practices:

1. The new guide is distributed.

2. A speaker is invited, usually a specialist in the field, to talk to the staff about the guide.
3. Sometimes there is another one or two hour follow up.
4. We then hope that the teacher is so stimulated that an honest attempt is made to implement it.
5. In a year a revised copy is issued, even before the first one has been soiled.—That's it!

Guides are extremely important instructional tools and should be given the emphasis they deserve. We are availed with other printed materials and unfortunately, the curriculum guide has suffered as a result. Since our main objective is the improvement of instruction, some serious thought should be given to this problem.

Some suggestions offered for better guide utilization are:

1. More curriculum conferences.
2. Each grade should report on various sections or areas.
3. Present more practical and specific information and procedure.
4. Review all guides one time each year.
5. A definite plan of action should be evolved by the staff.
6. Provide us with more time for study, more consultation with experts.
7. More outside help—specialists in various areas.
8. More group study.
9. Stagger the issuance of guides.
10. A copy of the guide for every teacher.
11. At minimum, one out of three faculty meetings should be devoted to group discussion of some area of the curriculum.

12. Encourage teachers to illustrate —share classroom work.
13. Continuous evaluation.
14. Use committees and panels to encourage discussion.
15. Every staff should elect a teacher to act as a "guide coordinator", to spark plug the study and act as a clearing house for evaluation and materials.
16. A suggested plan of study should be made by the committee writing the guide.

In Summary

It is obvious that this is merely a skeletal plan and leaves much to be desired. With similar sights set, one can visualize the curriculum guide receiving its due attention. No program such as the one advocated can hope to grow and improve unless there is proper evaluation. It would be interesting to note what some teachers say in regard to evaluation criteria:

1. In terms of its direct aid to teachers.
2. By its practical help.

3. In terms of our objectives for education.
4. How they meet the teacher's needs.

I won't be foolhardy enough to recommend an evaluation program. I think that teachers participation in formulating criteria for guide evaluation be the first step. This would help start a dynamic program for curriculum guides. I can foresee excellent contributions and the feeling of accomplishment and belonging which teachers would attain as a result of such a program.

The evolution, — assembly — introduction — implementation — utilization — and evaluation of curriculum guides takes many man hours of time and energy. It is our responsibility to see that we do not neglect the efforts expended. Teachers and administrators should be encouraged to plan and develop an effective program of action. The best for the children will come only through the study of new ideas and suggestions. Let us avoid the dilution of teaching by strengthening instruction, through the effective use of curriculum guides.

What About Extraclass Activities?

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IDEALLY, the acquiring of an education should be a vital and moving experience for youth in secondary schools, an experience that creates enthusiasm and a desire to learn. We might well take time to ask ourselves "How well am I doing?" It is good to stop and check ourselves against questions such as these:

1. How can classroom teaching be made more vital to pupils?
2. How can schools motivate and stimulate pupils to develop interest in some field that they may follow after graduation?
3. How can teachers identify those youth with special interests and skills?
4. How can school programs be enriched to meet the needs of more individuals?
5. How can teachers learn the changing needs of our industrial society so as to keep their courses modern?

Although not exhaustive, this list should help stimulate self analysis. Though brief, it highlights some current issues to which answers must be found in each community.

It is easy to generalize. For instance, we like to say, a good teacher is the answer to all five issues. Certainly a superior teacher can solve many of these

problems. The administrator, however, must bear his share of the responsibility. He can, and should make it possible for the teaching staff to work effectively. His is the responsibility for enrichment of the program. If elective courses do not meet pupil needs, then time either within or outside the school day can be used to offer important and meaningful extraclass activities.

"Most educators endorse student extraclass activities as an important way to obtain program flexibility, meet individual needs, and attain desirable educational objectives."¹

Great credit is due those schools giving special attention to the talented, and who likewise offer remedial classes for the slow learner. Many good practices are widely found which offer partial answers to the previously mentioned questions, among them are:

- a. Science fairs
- b. Career days
- c. Committee on scholarships and student aid for the deserving
- d. Committee to arrange loan of scientists from industry
- e. Teacher workshops on new industrial technology and new teaching methods
- f. Assembly talks for teachers and pupils, by capable industry personnel

1. P. VII. EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES in Aviation, Photography and Radio. Bulletin No. 11, 1956. 48 p. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price 25 cents.

- g. Encouraging appropriate teachers to accept after work and summer employment in vital industries

All of these as well as many more not listed contribute to the solution of the first five questions. Rather than generalizing, let's become specific and consider only No. 3 and No. 5 which are:

How can school programs be enriched to meet the needs of more individuals?

How can teachers identify those youth with special interests and skills?

Again, rather than try to cover the entire subject of enrichment, I would like to pin point some thoughts regarding enrichment by means of extraclass activities in the three fields of aviation, photography and radio. "Most schools have adopted activity programs such as chorus, dramatics, homeroom activities, etc. However, those especially tailored to meet the specific needs of youths having a potential future in science or engineering are not so widespread."² A doctoral dissertation listed aviation, radio, and photography (in this order) as the most frequently offered scientific-type clubs in 105 sampled New Jersey high schools.³

These three fields deserve a closer look by those in charge of curriculum development because they are and will be important to us as a nation for years to come. The Bureau of Labor Statistics in its 1955 list of occupations having critical shortage of personnel lists "Production and maintenance of Aircraft and Parts, (also) Production of Electronic and Communication Equipment."

In addition to this, it is important to realize that according to a report from

the same source the "Aircraft and Parts" industry was the largest employer of all classes of workers during the first two months of 1957. The automobile industry and the aircraft industry vie monthly for top place.

If then the aircraft industry is so important as an employer of personnel, we as school people should reassess aviation in its relation to the school program. Photography likewise has grown from the era of the "Brownie" snapshot, to a place where it gives pleasure and satisfaction to millions of people as a hobby. More important, there is hardly an industry that does not in some way depend on the photographic processes as a vital part of their experimentation, development, production, recording, and sales work.

Let's grant for the moment that these three fields of activity are of growing importance, and that schools should do more about meeting the needs of individuals with special interests in them. What can be done? One plan of action would be to offer as an elective, courses covering these important fields. Many schools already have recognized the importance of these subjects and are offering courses in them as indicated in "Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects" Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1948-50, published by the Office of Education, and available from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

In the field of aviation, the course most frequently found in high schools is "Science of Aeronautics" which carries with it a science credit. Other schools prefer to give a "fundamentals of aviation" course in the industrial arts de-

2. Ibid

3. Hehnlly, Frank Kramer. *Basic Philosophies of New Jersey School Administrators Toward Hobbies and Their Application in Public Instruction*, New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University, 1941.

partment. Still others offer courses which until recently were called "aircraft and engine mechanics" courses in the vocational department. The new C.A.A. terminology now refers to them as "airframe and power plant mechanics" courses.

The pattern of high school courses in Photography is well established. Some schools attach them to the industrial arts or the vocational departments, while others link them with journalism courses.

Radio or electronics is usually an industrial arts or a vocational course.

All of these courses challenge the abilities of those pupils with special interests in the several areas of learning and also serve to keep the school curriculum modern by offering courses which lead to either further education in science or engineering or to direct employment in industries which now have a desperate need for better trained workers.

Unfortunately all schools that may wish to offer such courses do not have the space, equipment, instructional staff, or the funds to make these additions to the curriculum. For such schools the extraclass activity or club may be most feasible. It should however be clear that a club activity, as good as it is, should not be considered as a substitute for a course.

What is the value of a good extraclass activity? What are the characteristics that make it good? Visit any well organized club listed in Bulletin No. 11 previously referred to and likely you will see displayed and be impressed with the following characteristics:

1. genuine enthusiasm
2. questioning minds at work
3. informal learning at its best

4. evidence of purposeful imagination
5. progress made at individual rates
6. problem solving applied to unusual problems
7. individual achievement demonstrated in practical ways

What could be more ideal as a learning situation? Because of the challenge and interest which are typical of extraclass activities we have in effect the elements that should characterize all secondary education, but which also too often are missing. Too many out-of-date books are still being used in classrooms. Too many (out-of-date?) teachers are still teaching the way they were taught years ago. Too infrequently is the stimulating reality of today's and tomorrow's problems applied to classwork. And all too often the reading assignments and recitations are conducted without regard to individual pupil needs.

Club activities are of great personal value to a majority of the individuals who follow one of these three hobbies over a period of years. For instance, in a recent sampling survey of their 14,000 members conducted by the Academy of Model Aeronautics, 53% stated that their experience in model aviation had definitely influenced their choice of courses of study or had proven to be of value in their work. This is a significant fact. Of the six thousand, or 43%, attending school, college or universities, three thousand seven hundred were taking engineering courses or prep courses for engineering. Eight thousand were employed or in military services. One thousand eight hundred were working for the aviation industry while two thousand eight hundred were employed as engineers, scientists and technicians in industries other than aviation, but probably associated in

many cases with the aviation industry. These statistics indicate the importance of model airplane activities in helping to identify those who have talent in aviation fields.

Types of extraclass activities cited as promising practices are listed in Extraclass Activities in Aviation, Photography and Radio previously mentioned. A very impressive endorsement of these club activities and their importance to the school program could come from a future study. This might report what those now successful in business and industry say about the value of their school club activities. The following case histories are typical of many which *could* be related.

An 11 year old boy obtained instruction, some encouragement and developed some latent skills when he joined a model airplane club. Competition with other boys taught him to perfect his handwork and improve his design. Soon he was winning prizes in local events. This added encouragement led to much informal learning, reading and experimenting. He became the top winner in area competitions during his junior year in high school. His parents were pleased with his activities as it gave a purpose to his other school classes. They encouraged his experimentation and native inventiveness. He graduated from M. I. T. with an average of better than 95% in all subjects. Today he heads one of the most important NACA aeronautical research flight test laboratories, and has received a valuable award as the most promising young engineer in his organization. Did all this happen because he belonged to a model airplane club? No, of course not, yet he and his parents hold as extremely important and valuable his club membership. His special interest in aviation was identi-

fied early, the club work served to continue and encourage that interest, informal learning resulted in which the individual took the initiative due to his great interest.

A high school freshman joined a model plane club and built very precise model planes, however he was not among the top winners in contests. The club had a single sheet mimeographed bulletin. This lad thought it would be fun to make each issue look different. On the basis of his enthusiasm he was selected as "editor." It was soon evident that this lad had unusual abilities in writing interesting aviation copy. Today he is Editor of one of the most successful model magazines, known the world over. Again the flexibility afforded by a club activity gave opportunity and encouragement to this boy. It might be said that his ability would have shown up in classroom work and the same results achieved. This is not so, as his style of writing was not the usual literary style. Many others in his classes more accomplished in the accepted style of writing would probably have discouraged any interest he displayed. He takes pleasure in attributing his start and the development of his talents to his club work.

One of the most renowned names in commercial photography in New York City entered Stuyvesant High School aspiring to be a lawyer after graduation from law school. Although his program was the usual academic curriculum, having joined the Camera Club he was frequently found in the school darkroom. He became President of the club and organized the intra-city high school photographic competition which after 35 years still carries on. He was responsible for having the Metropolitan Museum of Art carry photographs of the

work of the club in their monthly bulletin. After graduation from high school he enrolled in City College and studied law at New York University. It is interesting to note that finally he went back to photography where he made his reputation in commercial photography.

From the President of one of the largest manufacturers of radio and electronic equipment, which has annual sales amounting to millions of dollars comes this story. His first interest in what was to be a life long field of activity, came when as a boy of 14 with a group of friends formed a high school "wireless" club. The club was sponsored by the physics teacher as a by-product of the study of electricity in the physics class. He says "we used to go once a week to a code class at the Bunker Hill Boys' Club" where a qualified wireless telegrapher taught the boys. His struggle after graduation through a series of business ventures in radio, which was then a new field, increased his ability and understanding until he formed his own company in Chicago with a trade name which is now known and respected the world over. Again early identification, encouragement and informal learning played a big part in his success.

Two division heads in the Federal Communications Commission paid high tribute to teachers who sponsored amateur radio clubs in their high schools, one a physics teacher, the other a lady who taught algebra but had an amateur radio license. An awakening of an interest was attributed by both men to their teachers who in club sessions developed qualities of leadership in members, and the belief that they could achieve great things in the future if they

believed in themselves studied and worked hard. Both mentioned to me how underpaid those teachers were who rendered such valuable personal service to them. It is my feeling however that the teachers were happy in spite of being underpaid, having seen kindled the unquenchable fire that lays dormant in youth until some good teacher in class or in an extraclass situation creates the desire to learn.

Such stirring narratives certainly show the value of these extraclass activities as an aid in identifying those youth with special interests and skills. They also show how school programs can be enriched to meet the needs of more individuals.

In a study of public secondary schools made in 1948-49, it was related that 66.06 percent of schools reporting had activity periods. This statistic was based on a sample of 10,925 schools.⁴ Concealed in this 66.06 percent is an unknown smaller percentage of schools that offer one or all three of the club activities emphasized; namely, in the fields of aviation, photography and radio. Certainly if it is conceded that these three fields are to be important to us as a nation for years to come, and if the importance of the individual narratives just cited is granted, then such experiences and activities should be carefully considered by those in charge of the curriculum for possible inclusion and use by more schools.

Some thoughts summarized in the previously mentioned Bulletin No. 11 may serve as a guide to school administrators in developing extraclass activities in aviation, photography and radio. They are as follows:

4. The Activity Period in Public High Schools. Bulletin 1951, Number 19. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price 15 cents.

1. Support of club activities from funds administered by the principal is essential. Club dues often are found inadequate to purchase essential items of equipment. No club can succeed long without good basic equipment.
2. The three types of activities are successful in both junior and senior high schools.
3. Best results are definitely associated with good planning and the assistance of a competent sponsor.
4. Club activities should not be a substitute for courses in the subjects. They often are a first step and may demonstrate a pupil demand that would support an elective course.
5. Talented individuals are the backbone of any activity but many unoriented or less brilliant pupils find themselves through club interests.
6. Interests awakened by club activities often result in an improvement in academic standing.
7. Photo clubs are more lasting and successful when they are closely associated with graphic arts, fine arts, or journalism departments.
8. Two consecutive periods are desirable in the case of photo and model airplane clubs.
9. Devices such as the "open house," exhibitions, community-sponsored contests, industrial field trips, awards, or special recognition serve many times to stimulate interest and also to reward achievement.

Ethnocentrism and Curriculum Change

By DAVID W. SMITH

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ETHNOCENTRISM can be found to exist amidst the entanglements that come with living within the confines of an environment, and in the intenseness of the expressions of groups. A more concise definition of the term would involve the extreme identification by the individual with the familiar toward the devaluation of the *foreign* or what might be termed *change*. It is the feeling that one's own culture is the best in all respects to a point of utter repudiation of all other possibilities on the grounds that they are *inferior*. Ethnocentrism often leads to a rejection of the richness and knowledge of other cultures. "It also impedes the sharing of ideas and skills which might bring society closer to its own goals."²

What is the nature and scope of the responsibility of the public institutions of learning as they seek to deal effectively with the aftergrowth of existing forms of ethnocentric feelings in the community? The extension of the purpose of the schools to include the interpretation of Democracy touches the outer limits of a vast network of human endeavor; and the presence of ethnic feelings within the various communities impedes the progress of the educational method, since individuals caught in the web of ethnocentric tumult tend to deny the basic unity of humanity and

mankind. Such conditions prevent members of these groups from sharing educational opportunities equivalent to the total group.

The stability of a Democratic society depends to a large extent upon the strength of the lines of communication among its various participants. Democratic decomposition can often be determined from the evidences of existing malignancies, to include ethnocentric traits. The characteristic effects of such an infection unravel and run rampant as a direct result of clashes within society involving such factors as moral standards, value systems, attitudes, beliefs, and general exclusiveness. In general, these behaviorisms vent themselves in a pattern sufficiently different from the ongoing demeanor of the total group to have considerable impact on the schools of the community.

Children reared under standards calling for intense identification with a rather stunted culture have been denied an environment promoting the exchange of ideas upon which a rich culture is built. Where society has undertaken to make educational opportunities available on a more equal basis for all children, every attempt must also be made to understand the social structure which produced and nurtured them. As a matter of fact, one can scarcely under-

stand individual needs, except as he is able to understand the social framework with which, and by which these various characteristics have been determined.

As the various peculiarities and characteristics of ethnocentric behavior evolve and come to be known to public school people, the chances for their evaluation in terms of the possible *value* they might have for the total group improve. In addition, insight is then possible into what values have been placed on them by the group. According to Lewin⁵ a culture is actually a balance between the forces which maintain a social self-regulation at a given level. If a change is desired, it must be in the form of another set of equalizing forces which can effect a change and find a place in this constellation. The change has to be a change of group atmosphere rather than of single items. The change must follow along the lines of a democratic process.

The task of amalgamation of ethnic groups into the the total society looms a most difficult undertaking. It is conceivable that such action, in order to be successful, would engender a tremendous amount of change in the general complexion of the culture. If education accepts to play a role in this mission, it must do so in the light of what is and has been done. Education must also be fully aware of the fact that historically such attempts have been anything but smoothly and democratically activated. The preparation of an alert population, it seems, contributes much to the effectiveness of a long range program in the public schools.

In evaluating the dimensions of the issue, it seems appropriate to emphasize caution in any attempt made that confines attention solely on the child, since it is conceivable that much of what we

are dealing with here is really parent-centered. Perhaps even a definite commitment is involved, that of coming to grips with the traditionalism and idealism which characterizes ethnic groups. This of course has been a source of much avoidance in the past as we reflect on the *action* of public school leaders.

The student evaluating curriculum structure can easily become rather irked at the vast amounts of literature existent in our midst defining the need for more studies of the child-centered type. Little time have these *critics* and *educational-medicine-men* devoted to the need for studies devoted to the study of the parent.

Teachers, Administrators, and Boards of Education, seeking to produce changes in the program of the school, must recognize the central importance as well as the difficulty of managing the *human factor*. The people concerned must come to understand and accept the different patterns of living inferred by the term ethnocentrism, since typically, people who have been loyal to *old* patterns of existence must be helped to transfer their allegiances to the *new* models existent in the ongoing society. This invariably implies a definite need for certain changes to take place in value systems, much of this being dependent on the public schools, and their effectiveness.

Imperative to a sound evaluation of this problem by the professional educator would be a thorough knowledge of the way our society is structured culturally. It is essential, for example, that we discover the fact that status and role, so basic to feelings of individual worth, are determined to a large extent by certain perceptions and beliefs about the culture which surrounds the individual, and that a vast majority of the

persons perceptual strength rests with *home* dominated vestiges. In its work with these groups then it is of the utmost importance that the school should seek to avoid conflict situations that only serve to sharpen issues. Rather, it should search the opinions and tap the feelings of each participant in the life of the community toward possible alternative solutions to those conflicts which exist.

The effectiveness of the leadership of public institutions of learning in this all important area depends largely on the establishment of a sort of kinship with parents. A vital artery to the success or failure of the development of such a relationship is the teaching staff. In the employment of instructional personnel, administrators must exercise extreme care in selection. Only those teachers who express a sincere desire to work with parents and community groups should be employed. Administrators cannot run the risk of having ethnocentric attitudes embraced by teaching personnel.

A common danger to the building of good school-community relations through parents looms where those persons who should have the most concern for the problems involved, tend to take the least amount of interest. All too often school people feel they have established good community relations when they maintain contact with the *key* people in the community. In order to guarantee equal representation, and attempt to handle the problem of ethnocentrism, it will be most necessary for communities to employ men and women in places of educational leadership who have the stamina, interest, foresight,

and general ability to bring people together toward an integrated school-community.

Those who shoulder the responsibilities for working with ethnocentrism in a community should familiarize themselves with some of the more common traits. Havighurst and Taba³ have identified 10 areas of family life to be studied as a part of such an evaluation.

1. Common participation in work and play.
2. Degree of approval, disapproval.
3. Regularity in the home.
4. Confidences shared.
5. Child's acceptance of home standards.
6. Sharing in family discussions.
7. Trust and faith in child by parent.
8. Parental attitude toward peer-activities.
9. Inter-parental relations.
10. Signs of tension.

The existence of the need for longitudinal study in this area does not imply that there will be similarities in traits from group to group. Nor is it inferred that ethnocentric traits are necessarily *good* or *bad*. What is inferred, however, is the belief that these traits as they exist in the various groups embracing them should be evaluated toward their amalgamation in the going social order. The removal of certain ethnocentric barriers might prove beneficial to all of the people in the community, since an exchange of cultural components might contribute to a much more consistent on-going society. As a direct result of this type of action, the task of the educator seeking curriculum change takes on more realistic dimensions.

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BOOK REVIEWS

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH THOMAS
ALVA EDISON FOUNDATION INSTITUTE

STRENGTHENING SCIENCE EDUCATION
FOR YOUTH AND INDUSTRY. N. Y. University Press. August 19, 1957. \$5.00.

This publication contains the addresses and discussions of a two-day conference which included four panels, three luncheon addresses, and two general sessions.

A panel on the Factors in the Early Motivation of Scientists dealt with the identification of gifted students and their education in a special high school, social pressures affecting children's attitude toward scientists and engineers, home influences affecting personality development and vocational choice, the effect of teachers' attitudes on creativity of students in science, and philosophical aspects of the acceptability to youth of vocations oriented in science and engineering.

A panel on the Present State of Science and Mathematics teaching in the High School brought out favorable comments on the quality of instruction in mathematics, proposals for a revised sequence in high school science placing chemistry in the early and biology in the later years, problems of graduate study by science teachers with limited undergraduate background, and proposals for better training and higher salaries for science and mathematics teachers, who would be assisted by lower-paid personnel.

A panel on the Science Education Possibilities in Co-operative Education presented the work-study experiences of General Motors Institute, Antioch College, University of Buffalo, and the Practice Schools of M.I.T.

and Tulane University in the training of engineers.

A panel on Science Education in Russia: The Qualitative Aspect, presented statistics on Russia's training of engineers and scientists, the training and status of secondary teachers in Russia, and the achievements in Russia in the training of technicians and scientists at the four levels: operation of the mechanisms of modern industrial society, setting up and using production facilities, pedestrian research, and creativity in science and engineering. Only in the last is Russian achievement seem to be inferior.

Dilemmas of Engineering Education Caused by Research Needs was the subject of a general session. Among the problems considered were individual creativity vs. team work; intensity vs. breadth of training; emphasis on skill with tools of measurement vs. experimentation; necessity for specialization and the dangers of standardization, and the increasing complexity of the demands on engineers.

Two major addresses proposed new programs for the training of youth with aptitude and ability for science and engineering. Two other major addresses dealt with Squaring the Needs of Industry and Science Education, with emphasis on continued co-operative efforts by industry and education, and on an academic environment in which the individual's self-education can proceed apace.

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How to Help Your Children

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TAKE ANY PARENT! Ask this parent for tips on rearing children; you won't be disappointed. For every parent has certain ideas in regard to bringing up children in which he believes pretty firmly and usually is eager to share with others.

But few if any of these parents feel that they have the last word. In fact, most of them have been puzzled more than once as to why their children behave the way they do. So while most parents have advice to give, they more often have advice to seek.

There are probably no rules-of-thumb that can be invariably followed in rearing children. There are, however, certain guideposts which may normally point the right direction. As a parent, these are some things I believe:

1. *Teach children at an early age to assume responsibility.* They won't just pick up the trait after leaving home. Furthermore, children who have responsibilities that they are *expected* to fulfill are much easier to get along with. For some reason the responsible youngster has a much nicer disposition than the one who has learned to pass the buck—to "let George do it." Of course there are many types of responsible action and children should not be expected to be such paragons of virtue as to meet the acid test of top-level responsibility in every instance. But they are happier and more satisfied with themselves when they have developed the habit of meet-

ing obligations which are at the level of their maturity.

2. *Make it possible for your children to increasingly be economic assets to the family.* Whether a family is wealthy or poor, children should have the opportunity to make contributions of economic consequence. To achieve this, many parents in modern day society need to give this matter regular attention, rather than just hoping that the children will find opportunities to contribute to the family's economic welfare in the normal course of events. Here is one place where parents might hearken back to the "good old days" — when there were "chicken chores," washing the separator, and braiding sister Mary's hair before the morning trip to school. In today's world the little girl who helps with the dishes, and the boy who greets the dawn while delivering the morning papers illustrate this point. Of course, domineering ways of assigning work should be avoided like the plague. The quality children most respect in parents is fairness. Children should feel that they have reasonable opportunities for choice regarding both the nature of the work and time for its performance.

3. *Deliberately plan opportunities for your children to give respectful consideration to the older generation.* Of course, some older people make this task most difficult. At this point parents, by personal conduct and patient explanation, may need to pave the way. But the child who has learned that he must

be thoughtful and considerate of older people, *especially his grandparents*, has moved a long step in the direction of maturity.

4. *Provide opportunities for constructive hand education.* The verbally literate person needs the balance wheel of hand literacy. It may be playing a violin, typing a letter, painting a picture, building a soap box racer, or repairing a door latch. In our TV culture—this day of the arm chair spectator—children need and deserve opportunities for constructive doing.

5. *Develop an empathic understanding of your children.* Try always to realize how things seem to the children. Put yourself in their shoes when resolving a debatable issue. How does the thing look through the child's eyes?

6. *Gear a reasonable amount of your relationships with the children to their "contact level."* This does not mean being a child again. It does not mean building your whole life around your children, for adult relationships are extremely important. It does mean, however, that parents should display a genuine interest in things which are really important to the child. How is your "fishing-with-your-son" rating?

7. *Plan for a reasonable number of visitors in the home.* Children need the experience and have the right to entertain their friends. Home parties are important. Parents and children should strive for mutual liking and consideration. This means that children will act within proper limitations. Adult visitors, too, are important so that children will learn to be socially poised and friendly in their presence.

8. *Systematically plan for selected religious experiences in the home.* It's up to the family to choose the kind and degree. The important thing is that

children grow up in a home situation which builds in them a spirit of reverence.

9. *Provide facilities and materials for educational and cultural growth.* This means that there will be opportunities and a place for study, and for the pursuit of personal cultural interests. A critical observer might look for a globe, encyclopedias, dictionaries, adequate study conditions, good books, selected radio and television programs, and a wholesome "diet" of phonograph records of various types.

10. *Plan for interesting family trips.* Some of these trips may be to the back yard for a picnic with the neighbors; others to scenic spots a few hours away. Family planning for an annual trip may prove to be as interesting and as valuable as the trip itself. Of course, parents should recognize that sometime during the adolescent period young people, as a matter of normal reaction, may prefer to make their own vacation plans (and still love their parents).

11. *Plan for the family to eat an unhurried meal together at least once a day.* Perhaps the table can be attractively set—and not always by the mother. At this time the conversation should be of a pleasant and positive nature—avoiding topics which reveal personal resentment as well as those which are likely to cause inter-family argument.

12. *Make a real effort to have at least one evening a week at home.* During this time the family should engage in some mutual project which is not a chore or obligation: watching television programs of common interest, reading together, holding a family conference, playing quiet games, or something of the indoor picnic type.

13. *Place those items which are of a material nature in a somewhat second-*

ary position. In other words, interest in the personal welfare and respect for the individual's personality should take precedence over the various problems which are likely to have a monetary consideration. This does not mean that the family should not plan together in instances where such items as budgeting, purchasing, savings, and general thrift are at issue. It does mean, however, that providing for material satisfactions should not substitute for or take priority over the more human and spiritual values. This idea is embodied in Dr. Albert Schweitzer's belief that it isn't so much what we give others that counts but what our influence causes others to be and do.

14. *In taking disciplinary action, use the guideposts of affection, consistency, and complete fairness in decisions.* Learn to accentuate the positive by looking for the good in your children—the good which you can commend—rather than searching out the faults which you may feel obliged to condemn. As a rule, children generously encouraged try to improve still more, while those who are constantly criticized will draw into their own shells, become indifferent to criticism, or at the other extreme become resentful, and defensive.

15. *Place a premium upon the curiosity which naturally exists in all children.* Reward their inquiries and their desires to do creative things by giving them your attention and support to a degree that is reasonable. In fact, it might not be a bad idea for a parent to go out of his way to provide experiences and environmental conditions that stimulate constructively the child's imagination. The mother who tries out a new cookie recipe with her daughter and the father who builds a novel box

kite with his son are fostering the dormant inventive powers of their children. Furthermore, *interesting variety and intriguing experiences make the home a place where the heart is.*

16. *Teach your children to avoid certain obstacles,* but on occasion to turn these obstacles into opportunities. Firmness of purpose and courage to undertake the difficult can develop only by meeting problems and solving them. When obstacles appear, teach the children to think clearly first and then act calmly but with decision.

17. *Try to develop personally those qualities which you want your children to have.* Qualities such as friendliness, for example, come mainly by example and through "osmosis." Children may conform to certain rules of conduct due to the weight of adult authority. These rules of conduct, however, become part of their very being only as they develop in a climate where desired characteristics are practiced both by themselves and by the adults whose lives they are likely to emulate.

In Conclusion. The above suggestions for child guidance are recognized as being personal choices. Each reader will no doubt have individual "guideposts" which may be of greater significance, especially if related to his own family situation. It may be, however, that the ideas included here will present a fresh approach to a point of view that is already held by the reader. Even more important, the reader may be stimulated to bring to the foreground of his thinking related ideas which he at some time may have wanted to do something about but has just never gotten to it. In any case, the article may serve to point up some ideas which will generate needed action.

Personality Repair Through Reading Improvement

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On the Defense

THE INDIVIDUAL case record of a chronic failure does not present an attractive picture. By the time he finally reaches high school, he has cleared a no-man's-land around himself, chopped out with the hostility he has probably invented as a prop for his declining ego. He usually goes down, still swinging, at the age of sixteen.

The year-in-year-out defeat of all his efforts at achieving academic success according to the established rules must bring him eventually either to a pathetic acceptance of his scholastic inadequacy, or to a rebellion against these rules and the society which they represent. The acceptor is no threat to law and order; indifferent, docile, he settles for what little he has. The rebel, though, is another matter. He can make a shambles out of any lesson, in any classroom!

Chronic failure, scholastic inadequacy, rebellion—these hurts require defense. Pain and defense! This is a disturbing partnership which has many roots deep within the machinery of personality. Perhaps it is a partnership which we, ourselves, might well have inadvertently created by the conflicting motions of "offer and deny" as these occur in the daily school life of some low S-E children. We seem to have caught

many of our pupils in a trap baited with false hope. As a replacement goal for their present substandard existence, we offer them the attractive financial and social securities of the middle class—providing that along the way they have acquired the necessary reading skills to comprehend, organize, and utilize the middle class word-symbol devices.

These skills and devices are the very tools which middle class achievers use to substitute taboo, overt, physical aggression for the more desirable occupational, recreational, and intellectual competitions. Yet we deny this security and these devices to those who, approaching reading out of the unmotivated, intellectually impoverished background of the most meager lower class experience, are bewildered and locked out by the very same word-symbol devices.

Reading-Centered Schools

We are a reading centered school. We demand reading efficiency in every phase of our curricula patterns. Yet, we use the same middle-class oriented texts to teach reading to all primary children alike. Yet, we use the same middle-class defined rates and standards of achievement for all elementary pupils alike. Yet, we deny further reading instruction after the intermediate grades

on the assumption that once this mysterious reading process is underway, it is thereafter self-propelled at a rate predetermined by innate capacity, total environment, and the degree of indoctrination in the stigma of failure. No wonder some of these handicapped people rebel against organized society. It seems to be organized against them!

However, to offer Reading Rehabilitation as a panacea for the problems of our times is oversimplification born of wishful thinking. Reading instruction is hardly a substitute for family love, financial stability, and good health. Success in school is, of course, a constellation of items, and educational therapy is just as much dependent on the experiences a child brings TO school as it is on what he takes FROM school. On the other hand, there is a positive connection between mental health and school marks, between family influence and academic rank, between social attitudes and school behavior, and between achievement-discipline-reading!

To relieve the school of its share of grave responsibilities for the personality failure and delinquent behavior of some children on the grounds that family and societal controls are breaking down is, again, prejudiced thinking. Furthermore many individuals and agencies keep reminding us that the schools are not preparing, directly or indirectly, a significant segment of our population to meet the reading obligations of adult life.

For example: Senator Copeland's report from the material collected by his Committee on Racketeering and Crime contained this statement, "Among the children presenting personality and behavior problems were found large numbers who were failing to adjust satisfactorily owing to inability to read." In

the introduction to a 1954 Saturday Evening Post article called "Are We Failing Our Children," the editors had this to say, "somehow, in the pressures created by the enormous growth of mass education, some of our schools are turning out a good many young people who are deficient in such simple fundamentals as the ability to read understandingly . . ." This list should include the Life Magazine coverage of the John Hersey article, "Why Do Students Bog Down on First R?"; the now famous Rudolph Flesch book, "Why Johnny Can't Read"; the 1954 Colliers article, "Why Don't They Teach My Child To Read?"; the 1956 Ladies Home Journal article, "Why Make It Harder For Johnny To Read?"; and lastly, the July, 1955 National Parole and Probation Association Journal article, "Reading Retardation and Delinquency" which states, "it was found that 76% of the children screened for educational problems (by the Treatment Clinic of the New York City Children's Court) were retarded at least two years in reading; for over half this group the disability amounted to five years or more."

There, certainly, is a bibliography to make us think. Since reading is essentially a middle class approved technique for reaching certain long range goals, perhaps the resentful and insecure personalities found among the low S-E non-achievers have resulted, in part, from our own instructional ineptness. Have we learned how to modify the method and rate of socialization for such children? Can the slum youngster be expected to participate eagerly in early reading activities if he has internalized exclusively the indifferent reading standards of his own group? Can he ever be a successful high school reader when, arriving late at the stage of schol-

astic readiness which makes the learning of new skills possible, he finds the school program has already stopped teaching reading to all students? Non-promotion of the action-oriented, low S-E pupil at this point, justified as it may be by academic evidence, can be looked upon by the pupil himself only as a punishment—the beginning of his long pattern of pain and defense!

Action Is Required

This leaves us with three choices: first, dodge the problem entirely by revising the leaving age downward and dropping from school all pupils who cannot meet successfully the requirements of those subjects which put a premium on reading. Second, continue to water down the courses of study to the point of inanity. Third, organize a strong attack on such of the causes of academic and social failure which come directly within the scope of the school program.

It didn't take us long to make a choice at South Side High School. We decided to attack, and we called it: Personality Repair Through Reading Improvement. It was well within the scope of the school program. It was directly related to the conditions of the problem. IF WE HAD HURT SOME YOUNGSTERS WITH READING DISABILITY, THEN WE WOULD TRY TO REHABILITATE THEM WITH READING SUCCESS! We set out to explore the notion that perhaps the rebellious and anxious personality, the retreating and injured personality had been isolated and thwarted by reading deficiencies.

We looked at our own facts. Our Guidance Department had recently prepared an outline of the distribution of IQ's of all pupils on roll in 1955. The chart looked like this:

superior range	IQ 110-144	164 cases	13%
normal range	IQ 90-109	659 cases	52%
slow range	IQ 70-89	418 cases	34%
subnormal range	IQ 60-69	15 cases	1%
			1256 cases 100%

We had more statistics to go on than that. For three years the English Department had been giving standardized reading tests to all entering ninth graders. During that time exactly 1086 pupils had been tested. The distribution chart looked like this:

reading at grade			
10 or above	50 cases	5%	successful
9	109 cases	10%	average
8-7	320 cases	30%	slow
6-5	373 cases	34%	retarded
4-2	234 cases	21%	disabled
			1086 cases 100%

There was just one more investigation to make: the scholarship folder. This is a separate standardized form for each student in school and is the cumulative picture of his academic and behavioral growth. The correlation evidence we were seeking was so obvious that we set up this sequence: the lower the IQ, the lower the RG, the lower the subject marks, the more frequent the discipline referrals.

So—we made our frontal attack by organizing a modified core program experiment.

We selected ninth grade pupils at random from the lower ranges of 35% of the IQ cases, and the bottom ranges of 55% of the RG cases. We found we had at least enough for two classes of 25 pupils in each, whose schedules fit into the remaining normal pattern of the school day. These fifty students were

assigned a two-period consecutive bloc to be spent with one teacher who was qualified (and willing) to discover, diagnose, and treat their special problems. The bloc selected for them on the basis of their greatest need, and the most usable parts of the existing organization, was a combination of English and Occupations. The English was revised and reconstructed until it emerged as a full time remedial reading class. The Occupations (an old-time Civics course) was remolded and rejuvenated, and it too appeared in more realistic form as a Personal Problems class.

Three things happened simultaneously. One, an enlightened administration set aside a liberal budget for special material, and declared unfailing moral support. Two, the qualified (and willing) teacher had to rush back to graduate school for more qualifications. And three, the rest of the faculty found excuses to walk past the door of the special class out of genuine interest.

Reteaching

By the end of the first term certain things were clearly indicated. Because of mid-term promotions, we selected two new groups and followed the identical procedure. The second term confirmed our early indications and we were ready to pronounce three results.

FIRST, it is not too late to re-teach reading in the ninth grade. We found this out when we gave Form B of the same test that was used to measure the reading level of all entering freshmen. The amount of progress from the time Form A was given until the time Form B was given (one term) was extremely gratifying. We arrived at this decision on the basis of the following method of measurement. The average rate of reading growth was determined by dividing

the entering ninth grade reading score by the total number of years in school. The median score on Form A was a level of 4.75; and the median number of years in school was 9.5 (note the non-promotions!) Thus, the average student in these groups had been progressing at the average rate of .5 or one half grade in reading for every full year in school. After one term of instruction in the special bloc the median rate of growth was 1.45 (as against the previous .5). This was an increase in rate of growth of 290%. For some students this meant a jump in reading score from the fourth to the six grade level, or at best from the fifth to the eighth level—still some distance from being up to grade. In many cases, however, it meant coming up to potential!

Reading and Social Behavior

In most cases it meant success in school for the first time in many years, and led us to our SECOND conclusion: growth in reading skills and attitudes is frequently attended by greater subject area success, and in some instances by a reversal of previous patterns of anti-social behavior. Many of these children were recognized problems during elementary grades and were given special testing and analysis by the Department of Child Guidance. The records of most of those so referred for help seemed to follow a uniform problem-recommendation outline. The reporting psychologist generally fixed our attention on academic achievement far below expected capacity. For example:

Psych. Report #26747, 1951, "Albert's score of 75 on the Kuhlman-Anderson is not representative of his ability and the score is undoubtedly deflated by his inability to read well enough to understand the test." (Albert's score on the individual was 95.)

Psych. Report #26941, 1951, "Edward has adequate intelligence for average school progress. His individual score is 90-95. Edward's sensitivity makes him a difficult student to touch. Under too much pressure he is inclined to become hostile". (After one term in the special bloc this was entered in his record "marked improvement in the last months in attitude towards school and teachers.")

Anecdotal record from Scholarship Folder, Rochelle, 1946-1952, "emotionally unstable," "does not know right from wrong," "poor behavior". (At the end of one term in the combination class this was entered in her folder: "she shows a new interest in school that is reflected not only in her work but in her dress and social adjustment. Rochelle is now on Hall Patrol.")

Anecdotal record from Scholarship Folder, Jean, second grade through sixth, "not promoted due to excessive absence", "must be prodded, can do work of grade". (Jean entered the bloc with a reading grade of 5.7 and left with 9.3. She has been returned to regular classes and is maintaining a B- average.)

Use of I. Q. Scores

Our THIRD conclusion has to do with IQ scores. We are more alarmed than ever before with their continued use as a device for screening capacity levels. Intelligence has so long been associated with verbal symbols that verbal symbols are an accepted medium for measuring abstract intelligence. However, since printed words may be an inadequate basis for appraising the abilities of the very young, the insufficiently motivated low S-E child, or the poor reader, a non-language section is included in most new tests. Even in this later device, some advantage is given to

the student who is experienced with books and knows, or cares, that pictures represent things. There is even some doubt that the skills operative in the subsections which are entirely diagrammatical, or numerical, are really the same skills which are present in making verbal analogies. (We feel supported in this by the March, 1957 reports coming out of the Congressional hearings into Washington's integrated public schools, where results cast serious doubts on the validity of original IQ and other tests.) We feel that the whole area of IQ is suspect when reading retardation and socio-economic deprivation are present.

Sample after sample of our special students had a record of what looked like FALLING scores. It was not at all unusual for a student in this group to show a drop of 20 points from the IQ score taken in the third grade to the score registered in the ninth grade. And where the ninth grade mental ability test included two scores, a disparity of 20 points between verbal and non-verbal sections was the rule, not the exception. We are forced into the conclusion that the slow-learner is easier to deplore than define!

Last term we set up a control class to recheck our growth statistics, selecting students from the same IQ and RG materials as in the special classes, but using a modified regular English course of study generally adapted to this kind of pupil. The median rate of reading growth measured by the same forms of the test was .7 (against 1.45 in the special bloc). We are continuing in our follow-up studies to determine how long the benefits are maintained. Some of our information at this stage leads us to believe that we have favorably altered

the dropout figures for some kinds of students.

All freshmen classes are now getting at least one large scale unit in reading improvement as part of their regular study in English. More and more teachers of the content subjects are becoming interested in reading problems through a series of bulletins which are issued to keep all teachers informed about developments in the reading program. The National Honor Society has provided students who are good readers to tutor very slow readers right in their English class time. Special libraries of selected books for retarded (or reluctant) readers have been set up. A waiting list has grown and grown for a reading fundamentals elective now being offered to sophomores and juniors. All of this is the result of a realistic and long awaited approach to high school reading problems.

Each at His Own Level

This was our strong attack, our Personality Repair Through Reading Improvement. We took a group of boys and girls from the lowest IQ and RG ranges who were not experiencing success even in proportion to their potential, because in our large classes and traditional curricula they had discovered that what the SCHOOL called success was locked up inside the puzzle of a word-symbol device. And to them this was like reading a second language!

We put them into a two-period bloc because we felt that extended physical movement within the building every 45 minutes was demanding too many adjustments, too quickly. We put them into the hands of a core teacher who could get to know them better through longer consecutive associations. And we accepted their retardation in fact, not in

shame, and taught them to read as if it really were another language.

It hurts to be wrong all the time. Some children can not wait until they are 16 years old so that they can be right. In the meantime, they must defend themselves against teachers, courses, and reading.

Yet, the results of our experimental high school class seem to suggest that even retarded pupils can be reached at their own level. When students are not forced to be what they aren't, or perform as they can't, they seem able to move slowly forward both academically and socially. It must feel good, for a change, to be accepted as a poor reader—and then go on from there. Of course, many of our people turned out to be not very mediocre at all. They had just adopted indifference as a weapon against failure by the outgroup's standards.

It seems to us reasonable to assume the following as conclusions:

1. Slow readers can be picked up wherever they are and brought to higher levels under certain remedial teaching conditions.
2. The IQ and RG of a low S-E child are not reliable measures when remotivation and special instruction are provided on the high school level.
3. The middle class standards of the average high school will defeat the efforts of an underprivileged child and possibly redirect his energies into un-social acts of reprisal.
4. In a carefully rearranged school environment certain children respond favorably to special treatment when threats of inadequacy are replaced by opportunities to succeed.
5. Certain previous non-achievers start to learn again and reach near grade level in a short time when special provisions are made for their academic regrowth.

The specific course content of this combination class is not within the scope of the present report. It is to be understood, however, that the materials were characterized by great variety, controlled readability and vocabulary, concreteness, action, and brevity. The methods of instruction included flexible grouping, much individualization, constant progress charts, and great patience.

We are convinced that ability to read is essential to a useful citizen's pursuit of happiness. We are unshaken in the belief that all children at every level

should be taught (or retaught) how to read up to their capacity. We are sure that continual re-examination of the school program is a small price to pay for preventing human failure. We assert that academic, social, and emotional disability must be faced squarely in terms of administration, finance, and instruction. An enlightened school, functioning under the democratic notion that all people must be given an opportunity to succeed, can not do less than its very best.

SOME CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Reviewed by PAUL ZANKOWICH

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POCAHONTAS AND HER WORLD. By Frances Carpenter. Illustrated by W. Langdon Kihn. N. Y. Alfred A. Knopf. 1957. \$3.00.

Youngsters always read with interest the passages of their history books about Pocahontas. Her bravery appeals to them and they often express the wish to know more about this Indian princess and the world in which she lived. Here, then, is the story of this fearless girl reconstructed from some very authentic sources. The story is told entirely from the point of view of Pocahontas herself and this, too, will make the book even more interesting for young readers.

—Paul Zankowich

I GIVE YOU MY COLT. By Alice Geer Kelsey. Illustrated by Helen Torrey. N. Y. Longmans, Green. 1956. \$2.75.

Here is a story of modern Persia. Two Kashgai lads, Jafar and Musa, with their dogs, guard the family's animals. As they see their father and older brother ride off each day on magnificent steeds, all they talk of is how much they want horses of their own. How they manage to get a young colt and how they nearly lose it make this an exciting story for junior high school folk.

—PAUL ZANKOWICH

CARIBOO TRAIL. By Christil Harris. N. Y. Longmans, Green. 1957. \$3.75

The Hawthorne family set forth for the Cariboo gold fields in the spring of 1862. They started on their journey in a paddle-wheeler steamer up the Red River on their way toward Fort Garry, later to become known as Winnipeg. From that point they took a wagon train to the gold fields. It turned out that the Hawthornes were the only family in the brigade, a fact that raised some objections from the males who constituted the brigade. The author has woven a good story about the Hawthornes and, at the same time, has drawn a fine picture of the opening of the Cariboo country.—Paul Zankowich

MAN AND HIS TOOLS. By William A. Burns. Pictures by Paula Hutchinson. N. Y. Whittlesey House. 1956. \$2.75.

Man is a tool-using animal, and this oft-quoted statement is thoroughly explored in this fine story of how man first discovered the basic tools from which all tools have been developed. The story of the evolution of tools reaches back to the time when man invented the knife, the hammer, and the saw. The rest of the story is simply that of man improving these basic tools and adapting them to work for him. Excellent reading for all youngsters but especially for those in the construction arts and the laboratories of industry.

—PAUL ZANKOWICH

Improving *the* Behavior of Children

By JOSEPH RESNICK
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A CHILD IS the most vital link in the continuation of our heritage in this American democracy. Realization of this value can contribute toward maintaining the proper attitude in promoting the educational progress of the child in the classroom. In assisting the child to adjust adequately, various questions present themselves. How can the child be helped to improve his own behavior? What can a teacher do in the classroom to improve a child's behavior? Are punishment and being informed about children opposed in character or inconsistent? How can a teacher distinguish simple misconduct from deep seated behavior problems? When does the responsibility to the total group supercede that of the individual?

How can the child be helped to improve his own behavior? It may be safely assumed that a child usually does not know the reason for his misconduct. The bully who enjoys striking smaller and younger children is not aware that deep seated fears have driven him to compensate with aggressive behavior for his feelings of emotional insecurity. The clown or "show-off" in the classroom does not recognize that his antics are to obtain attention perhaps to offset feelings of inferiority. The child who is frequently in fights with other children fails to realize that he may be seeking status as a result of frustrations

in the classroom. A child can be helped to improve his own behavior by having revealed to him in friendly conferences what he seeks or desires. Behavior should gradually show improvement when a child is informed in an amicable manner and accepts that his conduct is due to a desire for attention. The disclosure in a way which does not blame the child that he wants to hurt other children or adults because he feels unloved or disliked can be the start of remedial measures. The child who has a low opinion of himself may de dominate to offset feelings of inferiority. His behavior may be interpreted to him as desiring to tell others what to do. Opportunities should be provided for building self confidence and a feeling of worth so that further need for dominating will not be necessary. Children who quit trying because they feel incapable of being successful need frequent short conferences which stress their skills and strong points.

What can a teacher do in the classroom to improve a child's behavior? Many techniques can be employed to assist in improving conduct. Avoiding humiliating the child is important in building a good relationship. Requesting a child to read orally even though it is known that he has embarrassing stops and stumbles over words so that laughter is evoked by the class members, is conductive to anti-social behavior.

Where academic retardation is evident the child should be permitted to compete with himself through the use of a *daily progress chart*. Praise should be used frequently and recognized as of more value than adverse criticism in stimulating interest and effort. Making the child feel needed in the classroom serves to develop emotional security. This can be done by asking his opinion about a subject which is familiar to him, assigning small duties, and having short conferences when necessary. Giving recognition whenever possible is a valuable means of promoting interest. A drawing placed on the blackboard with the child's name beneath it helps the child gain a feeling of being noticed. Relating classwork to daily life experiences usually stimulates interest. A low-pitched, pleasant voice, a happy smile, a room with pictures of interest to children, an aquarium and other objects to reduce the harshness with which many children view the classroom are valuable in assisting in improvement of misbehavior.

Are punishment and being informed about children opposed in character or inconsistent? All children need love and affection, success experiences, praise, attention, and acceptance, plus a moderate amount of firmness in supervision, to avoid becoming emotional cripples. Children need to be protected from themselves as well as other children. A child who is permitted to grow up without restrictions or regard for rules is not being adequately prepared for life and its responsibilities. Respect for the rights of others is a fundamental principle in our society. This rule and learning obedience serve as a guide in later life. Punishment usually should consist of the temporary removal of privileges. The reason for the punish-

ment should always be explained. The chastisement needs to be consistent in that the parent or educator should not feel sorry for the child and permit a rule to be abused because of a feeling of being too severe on a preceding day. Where sympathetic understanding and fairness are applied, the result should be better behavior and an improved attitude. Generally, it should be recognized that praise for correct behavior serves to promote proper conduct.

How can a teacher distinguish simple misconduct from deep seated behavior problems? The behavior of normal children and seriously maladjusted children frequently is the same. Stealing, dawdling, temper tantrums, lying, cheating, fighting, and whining may all be indulged in at times by normal children. These symptoms may also indicate underlying serious maladjustment. The extent of the maladjustment cannot usually be determined merely by knowing the activity in which the child has participated. The frequency with which the activity occurs may be used as an indication of its seriousness. A single temper tantrum in a month cannot generally be considered of equal importance as several temper tantrums in a day. Occasional fibbing may be considered normal while frequent lying may indicate a personality problem. The vigor with which the individual enters into the activity is also a factor to be considered.

The writer remembers that as a child he threw a snow-ball and broke a neighbor's window. This accident occurred without malice and only because the child was interested in seeing how far he could throw. Contrast this incident with an episode of a twelve year old boy referred to the writer as a discipline problem. During a conference, the child

admitted throwing a rock with all of his might at a passing car because "the man driving that car looked like my step-father." Fortunately he missed the driver. Both acts mentioned involved throwing but the feeling was not the same. The over-all picture of the child's behavior must be considered in determining the seriousness of wrong behavior.

When does the responsibility to the total group supersede that of the individual? Children with personality or learning problems that are extreme in nature and seriously interfere with the adequate functioning of the classroom learning situation may need to be removed. Usually behavior problems develop gradually and permit time for remedial measures. The assumption is made before eliminating a child from school for antisocial behavior that the educator has exhausted all means at his disposal to improve the child's conduct. Included in the measures taken should be: determination of the cause of the child's behavior, recognition of the influence of frustration and humiliation with continued failure, indication of the mental ability and interests, provision for praise, attention, and success experiences, short daily conferences scheduled to give the child an opportunity to unburden his problems and feel that someone was interested in him, provision for the child to feel needed in the classroom, and conferences with the parents to enlist their support.

Mable was a twelve year old girl with an I. Q. of 60. She came to the writer's attention for a psychological study because of her strong arm tactics with other children especially younger girls. Further investigation showed a strict family situation with little or no

evidence of affection. The child felt rejected and evidently had become aggressive to obtain affection in school and on the playground. Being starved for affection and unable to satisfy this personality need in the home, she would throw her arms around the neck of younger children in a hugging gesture and squeeze tightly. Children became afraid of her. Several conferences with the child and parents brought temporary improvement. Although the child's need for love and affection was stressed, the home seemed incapable of providing this requirement. Teachers helped but without complete home cooperation, it became evident that close supervision would always be necessary especially at recess time. One morning in a burst of enthusiasm, Mable rushed into a first grade classroom to throw her arms around a small child's neck, but the child saw her coming and ran to the teacher. After an additional conference with the parents, principal, and teachers present, and an examination and recommendation by a physician, it was agreed that the child be withdrawn from school for the remainder of the school year in order to insure the safety of other children. Suggestions were given the parents to assist in the child's behavior and learning and interested institutions were indicated.

There is a constant challenge to the educator to meet the educational and personality needs of the child. Treating each child as an individual and determining the reasons for problem conduct or inadequate learning lift teaching from a routine activity to a highly professional occupation. The reward is not only increased progress for the child but greater satisfaction for the teacher.

Thoughts With Expression— *The Values of Debate in Schools*

By WESLEY P. CALLENDER, JR.

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A GROUP OF Students emerged from a large high school building late one afternoon recently, talking animatedly among themselves, their radiant faces further expressing the excitement and good-humor which welled within them. "How about that!," exclaimed one, "Wasn't that all right?" "I'll say!," responded another, "We should do that more often." These remarks accurately reflected the feelings of a number of young people that day. What was the occasion? They had just participated in an inter-scholastic debate tournament.

Debate activity can do much to put enjoyment into the lives of many high school students as well as prove of great value to them, but it is, unfortunately, a relatively untapped field in high schools throughout our nation. This is an unhappy oversight that administrators and teachers should be urged to correct by becoming aware of the many values and advantages that debating has to offer and then introducing it into their schools. If debating already exists, but as a weak, floundering, unguided activity, it should be strengthened and re-aimed toward the realization of its potential as a really vital, exciting activity.

Values of Debating

What are points in favor of debate as a high school activity? Basically, we

may say that the values are three-fold: to the individual, to the school, and to society.

To the individual participating in debate accrue such benefits as that he (1) learns what good clear, straight thinking is, has his reasoning sharpened, and learns about logic; (2) gains poise and self-control, learns how to think on his feet before people; (3) learns to argue effectively in a controlled manner; (4) gains experience and pleasure from competition, competition against others and against himself in working to improve his abilities; (5) becomes thoroughly acquainted with important issues of the day and is helped to see that there are two sides to these issues; (6) grows more interested in other, broader aspects of life than just those directly concerned with the debate topics; (7) becomes more interested in and better acquainted with other schools and the pupils in them.

Values of debating to the schools in which the activity exists include such points as that (1) it does much to "sharpen" the students, particularly the brighter ones who need all the stimulation they can get in schools; (2) it requires only slight financial expense to the school as little equipment is involved and even trips to other schools and to tournaments can be managed inexpensively; (3) even if the group is small much good can result to the group

and to the school; (4) it does not require an unusual amount of faculty supervision, and, though the more coaching that is available the better it is, can actually be successful with relatively slight supervision if handled right.

Society benefits by gaining citizens who are not only better-informed and more interested in what goes on within it, but also citizens who are better able to analyze what should be done in situations that arise and who can then effectively verbalize their reasoning and suggestions. The importance of these qualities in the citizens which our schools turn out cannot be underestimated. Debate is one of the best possible instruments for achieving these qualities.

A Second Look

Let's look more closely at the reasons listed above for encouraging debate.

In regard to the individual, point 1 indicates that in debate he has impressed upon him one of the abilities most needed in our country today: the ability to distinguish good clear, straight thinking from the fuzzy, muddle-headed type so frequently found in our society. This is of paramount importance. So, too, is learning to use reason in dealing with problems, and knowing what is logical and what is not.

The experienced debater learns these things and thereby becomes an alert, more useful citizen—one who does not easily fall prey to unreasonable and illogical but outwardly attractive or emotion-arousing ideologies and practices.

The individual debater has much more to gain. Even a student who may never participate in a "decision debate" where he may be declared a winner will gain, as indicated in points 2, 3, and

4 above, poise and self-control and will overcome many fears simply by engaging in practice debates or non-decision contests with his own schoolmates. If he does actually win decisions the salutary effect upon him will be even greater.

Too many everyday "discussions" between people degenerate into mere shouting sessions where valid argument vanishes out the window with the hot air. Debate trains its students in effective, sticking-to-the-point discussion, where control of one's words and emotions persists even through animated clashes. You can't lose your head and be a successful debater!

Competition in debate can be keen and can exhilarate members of the squad and provide them with great incentive to make a good showing and to improve their own degree of competency. Although teamwork is involved in the preparation and presentation of a debate case, this is primarily an individual activity and it places responsibility for success or lack of it where it belongs—with the individual. Here we have another trait that is sorely needed today, for too many of our young people, and adults too, are content to let "George" carry the load and too often they seek scapegoats to shoulder responsibility that should be their own. However, we should note here, that proper direction will prevent debaters from having to face an unhappy amount of lack of success in debating. This will be accomplished primarily by withholding inexperienced or unprepared debaters from decision contests or from going against opponents who far outclass them.

Points 5, 6, and 7 above call attention to another vital area, that which finds individuals informed about and in-

terested in the world outside their own immediate sphere of living. Again, we too often find people today manifesting little knowledge or concern about what goes on regarding important issues and in fast-moving sections of the world. Debate lifts the eyes and expands horizons. Students are also prompted to take a greater interest in problems pertinent to their local areas and in the schools which they visit to meet their students in debate contests.

All of the benefits gained by students from debate are of value to the sponsoring schools themselves. Little elaboration would seem to be necessary here, for anything that is so worthwhile for the students is certainly worthwhile for the school.

Equipment

There are other, more direct, advantages for schools to be found in debate, including those previously mentioned in the itemized list. Among these, cost is an important factor, for what school does not need to be concerned with the disbursement of its finances? About the only "equipment" that might have to be purchased for a debate group would be a few copies of one of the debate manuals published annually which analyzes and discusses both sides of the current high school debate topics, and which also presents bibliographies for debaters to study.

Generally, team members will find sufficient reference material available in the books, magazines, and newspapers in the school library or local public library, or even at home.

About the only other expense would be that incurred in sending the squad to another school or another town for a debate or to participate in a tournament. This should be a minimal cost. The

number of debaters sent to represent the school generally would not exceed six and therefore they could all travel in one automobile. No bus or cavalcade of cars would be required. When the team from another school visits yours for a home debate some light refreshments might be served, but, if these could not be secured through donations, the cost could be kept slight.

Guidance

Another prominent fact about debate that makes it attractive to schools is that it need not occupy a great deal of faculty time and supervision. Often a teacher will be found on the faculty who is genuinely interested in debate activity and who will be willing to give whatever time is necessary. As indicated previously, the more coaching and guidance that is made available to a high school debate group the better the results will be. But, particularly with an established group or experienced debaters, the interest and drive of the students themselves, coupled with the fact that the debaters will usually be the higher-level students, will make it possible for them to achieve a great deal even with a minimum of supervision.

Schools are also pleased to find that debates provide entertaining and instructive assembly and after-school programs which often provide a continuing interest in the subject discussed for at least a few in the audience.

The broader, long-range benefits that can come to society through school debate programs have already been briefly touched upon. It is important that such benefits be recognized. With a true understanding of them established in the minds of administrators and teachers it would seem unlikely that their schools

would be without debate activities being made available to the students.

The Evidence

If further convincing is needed, any doubter of the value of debate will surely find that doubt weakening if he makes even a cursory survey of the number of prominent men who engaged in debate during their high school and college years, and who give that activity at least some credit for their success. This is true not only of those in such occupations as law and politics, where the ability to debate is of primary importance, but in many other fields as well. We might, in all earnestness, say that the values found in debate will be useful to anybody in any field. We all must be able to think clearly and logically and

then be able to express ourselves lucidly and forcefully. Indeed, thoughts without expression benefit no one but the thinker.

I do not intend to infer that debate will single-handedly eradicate many of the individual and social ills of the day. But it does offer an impressive amount of assistance. I do not say that every debater will reach the pinnacle of success in later life. But he will be a better person for it.

We have added a wide and fruitful variety of courses and extra-curricular activities to the offerings of our high schools in recent years. But we still have to make debate the vital, useful, and enjoyable activity that it can be.

Give it a real chance in your school and see!

Physical Education *and the* Classroom Teacher

By CARL E. WILLGOOSE
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".....let us have men whose manhood is only the continuation of their boyhood, natural characters still; such are able for fertile and heroic action; and not that sad spectacle with which we are too often familiar, educated eyes in uneducated bodies."

—Emerson

RESEARCH INDICATES that civilization plays strange tricks.

Many of the youth of the land are lacking the physical wherewithal to participate in vigorous, growth stimulating activities. They are sub-strength in structure and in many cases somewhat lacking in basic skills of running, jumping, climbing, swimming, throwing, etc. They simply have not been exposed to first rate physical education activities. It is almost an axiom that *the more complex civilization becomes the less valid is instinctive behavior and therefore the greater becomes the need of education to preserve health.*

When Emerson, in his Essay on Education, referred to "educated eyes in uneducated bodies" he was making a point in favor of fitness—fitness for living in the world of his day. The civilization of today demands even more attention to fitness than was given by this famous New Englander seventy-five years ago. The specific items of exercise, nutrition, and rest build a quality of physical fitness that is a pre-requisite

for all other activities. There is little opportunity for service—to be socially efficient, or even to be charitable—unless one has the physical wherewithal to get started, keep going, and give of himself. For to think about great deeds, but lack the physical capacity to perform them is indeed tragic. Moreover, it is this physical capacity in combination with sound mental-emotional health that is the responsibility of the educator.

Value of Physical Skills

It is a challenge to all classroom teachers to acquaint boys and girls with the knowledges and skills in the physical activity area. Fitness in later life is related, among other things, to skills acquired during the early years. The organism remains functionally efficient for many long years if there is regular exposure to physical activities—especially those carried on during leisure moments in a pleasant atmosphere. Morbidity and mortality from coronary heart disease is twice as great among people who do not have regular exercise. And the many diseases and defects associated with psychological stress continue to increase whenever man forgets to seek divergence from the fast pace of modern society. Thus each instructor of youth, particularly at the elementary level, teaches the mimetics and story plays, the games, the rythms and dances, and the

recreational game skills that contribute to growth at the moment. He is also providing the basic wherewithal for activity during the post-school years.

The Broad and Varied Program

Over 70% of the classroom teachers in New York State carry on their own programs of physical education. It is the minority that have the services of the trained specialist to teach the activities. It is important, therefore, that each teacher groom herself well, not only in the behavior characteristics of the age group, but in the appropriate activities for each grade level, season, and facility. The program must be a broad and varied one so that all children have a number of experiences and find something that they are interested in. It is the concomitant learnings associated with these games and dances that foster social efficiency, cultural appreciations, and moral-ethical values. This becomes all the more true when one considers that "activity play—games, stunts, rhythms, and dance—is to the child as work to the man. It is serious, special, and full of meaning—the child's way of life. Through it he learns about himself, the people and the things around him."¹

Merely turning children loose on a playground twice a day, day after day to "blow off steam," is not physical education. In fact, it represents an example of a situation where a unique opportunity is being missed. True, the children will find some relief from the aca-

demic activities of the classroom, but they will be denied the chance to learn the skills and develop the attitudes that are so much a part of a good physical education program. This is not to be treated as a hap-hazard activity, for physical education is not just aimless movement; it is part of the education process of changing behavior toward certain pre-conceived goals—primarily *through* large muscle activity.

Conclusion

Elementary teachers who feel somewhat unprepared in this physical education area, who lack the skill and knowledge to carry on even a partial program of purposeful activity, should do one or two of the following things:

1. Visit a class where a good program of suitable activities is being taught and see how it is done. In most communities there is at least one or two especially successful teachers in this area.
2. Visit the school or community library and search the existing books for appropriate games, dances, self-testing stunts, etc.
3. Write the nearest elementary teacher preparation institution for program help.
4. Contact the State Education Department supervisor of elementary physical education. Either he will pay you a visit, arrange for you to visit a school, or will send you written suggestions.

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DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*

School of Education, New York University

COMPTON'S PICTURED ENCYCLOPEDIA
15 Volumes. Chicago, F. E. Compton &
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work brings them into a continuous relationship with children and families. The second part of the book lays out the techniques in detail and draws observations together in a general theory of maladjustment beyond which lies a general theory of human behavior. There are some very cogent statements concerning the I. Q. and reliance upon this measure as an unchanging measure in the handling of maladjusted children. It is the author's point of view that the I. Q. varies with the child's emotional stability. A very interesting book for teachers, psychologists, and social workers on this side of the Atlantic.—W. P. Sears.

THE CHILD AND HIS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL WORLD. By Ruby H. Warner. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$4.95.

This very rewarding book pursues two problems of vital importance in the realm of the learning process. Exactly what must the elementary school do to satisfy the mental and emotional needs of the child? And—How can it implant in him a healthy sense of his own worth, both as an individual and as a member of a group? To answer these questions, the author goes right into the classroom to observe current practices in all key areas of the curriculum. The approach is intensely practical and, consequently, the book should be of value to both prospective teachers and in-service teachers, as well as supervisors.—W. P. Sears.

DICTIONARY OF ARTISTS IN AMERICA, 1564-1860. By George C. Groce and David H. Wallace. New Haven. Yale University Press. 1957. \$15.00.

More than 10,000 painters, engravers, lithographers, draftsmen, silhouette-cutters, sculptors, wax-moulders, figurehead-carvers, cameo-cutters, seal-cutters, and medalists who worked in America before 1861 are included in this comprehensive and documented dictionary. In each case, such vital data as full name, date and place of birth and death, media and subject matter of work, chronology of residence, exhibitions, and pupils are given. Both primary and secondary sources have been carefully and fully used. The *Dictionary*

is a must for all college, university, and public libraries, and it will be a most valuable tool for research workers in the study of American arts and crafts.—W. P. S.

UNDERSTANDING GIRLS. By Clarence G. Moser. N. Y. Association Press. 1957. \$3.50.

This simply written book is designed for mothers, fathers, and all who help girls grow and develop wisely and happily through the years of infancy, childhood, and adolescence. For easy reference, the physical, emotional, intellectual, and social growth patterns are explained in separate sections for the age groups 6 to 8, 9 to 11, 12 to 14, and 15 to 17. Especially stressed are the social and cultural setting into which each girl finds herself today; the need for self-discovery and self-acceptance which must precede healthy and easy relations with others; her needs from parents, peers, the school, and other agencies; and her potential role as mother and citizen of tomorrow.—William P. Sears

NIGHTMARE OF THE INNOCENTS. By Otto Larsen. N. Y. Philosophical Library. 1957. \$6.00.

If you wish to read about some of the horrors of the present sophisticated age, the pages of this exciting book will provide you with ample material. The author, a Norwegian fisherman, was arrested by the Russians for no discoverable crime and sentenced to ten years of hard labor in the slave-camps of the Soviet Union. He tells a plain, unvarnished story of the hardships, nightmares, and hell. One's reaction on reading these stark and terrifying pages will be uneasiness and fear. Yet, it is a book to read and ponder over as one forms one's opinion on current world affairs.—William P. Sears

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VITAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION. Edited by Arthur E. Traxler. Washington, D. C. American Council on Education. 1957. \$2.00.

This report of the twenty-first educational conference sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education contains two kinds of material; a review of the conference and transcriptions of the papers presented. The review of the conference provides information regarding the organization of this conference as well as a tabulation of persons attending. Interestingly enough, half of the conference registrants belong to the independent school group which was somewhat larger than usual. The major portion of the text is concerned with the twenty papers presented in the areas of guidance, testing, teacher shortage, and reading. Authors of these papers include such persons as: Frances M. Wilson, Robert Hopcock, Arthur E. Traxler, Ralph Steele, and Donald D. Durrell. For persons not familiar with the work of the Educational Record Bureau a number of these papers prove helpful in understanding the bureau's activities.

—Jerome E. Leavitt

HELPING PARENTS UNDERSTAND THEIR CHILD'S SCHOOL. By Grace Langdon and Irving W. Stout. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$6.65.

The principle of relating the work of our schools to the parents of the children who attend them has long been recognized as a most desirable one. The implementation of this principle, however, has been left much to the discretion of individual teachers. This book is a handbook for teachers and it is designed to help them anticipate, as well as answer, the questions that parents will ask about the schools. The approach is a very realistic one and the authors have assembled much worthwhile information within the covers of a single volume.—William P. Sears

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING IN THE CLASSROOM. By Dugald S. Arbuckle. Boston. Allyn and Bacon. 1957. \$5.00.

This text is designed for those in teacher preparation. It is written with the belief that the teacher is the anchor of a democratic society and that the child of society will soon be its maker. The volume is for the

future classroom teacher as well as for the future guidance counselor. Nine chapters make up the volume. There are chapters on the place and need of guidance in modern education and the role of the teacher as a guidance worker. The counseling process is carefully delineated. There are chapters, too, on measurement and testing, and organizing guidance services. A case study in counseling gives excellent insight into the day-to-day work of guidance. The material has been wisely selected for teaching purposes and the organization is simple and direct.

—William P. Sears

THE CHILD WITHIN THE GROUP. By Marion E. Turner. Stanford. Stanford University Press. 1957. \$3.00.

Can self-control be developed in young children through a program of self-government? The author of this study, long active in work with children, designed a unique experiment to answer this persistent question. Based upon sound and reasonable assumptions, the experiment appears to be a realistic one and the findings merit attention. The largest part of the book is composed of verbatim reports of the conversations of a group of children, aged 4 to 9, who learned to call meetings when some members of the group became unruly. Rules, using parliamentary procedures, were made to prevent such disturbances. When these rules were broken, the youngsters set up their own system of restraints and penalties.—W. P. S.

PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION. By Paul R. Mort and Donald H. Ross. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$6.00.

This is a revision of "Mort and Ross," a text that for the past decade has been a classic in school administration. The volume has been drastically reorganized in the attempt to render it a more effective teaching tool. As its forebear, the present text covers thoroughly a system of cultural sanctions, or values, generally held in our civilization. The pertinence of each of these values to administrative problems constitutes the core for each chapter. The chapters on the structure of state and local school systems are especially well organized. The daily task of the school superintendent have not been lost in any ariness of theory.—William P. Sears

ADMINISTERING THE PEOPLE'S SCHOOLS. By Albert L. Ayers. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$5.50.

This is a comprehensive and very practical text designed for those in school administration and those preparing for positions in this level of service. The author has drawn on his own experience as a school administrator and he has utilized the expressed needs and experiences of nearly one hundred school executives. As a result, the text has the ring of reality and soundness. There is much on such vital topics as merit ratings, academic freedom, cooperation with business and industry, programs for the especially talented, and a host of other topics that face contemporary school administrators. Other topics include dealing with the Board of Education, buying supplies, planning plant and facilities, and administering curricular and extra-curricular services. Throughout the approach is thoroughly practical. There are excellent bibliographies.—William P. Sears

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION. By Peter Palmer Mickelson and Kenneth H. Hansen. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$5.25.

This text is designed to assist in the preparation of competent elementary school administrators. It identifies the major problems of elementary education and tells how the principal may attack them with success. The approach to the improvement of elementary education, in the thought of the authors, lies in the development of good administration and good administrators at the local level. The volume is divided into three major parts. The first part provides background information about the elementary school, the job of the principal, and the management of the school. The second section covers the specific responsibilities of the principal in the areas of educational leadership, curriculum, teaching-learning materials, and pupil personnel. The remainder of the book deals with such special problems of the principal as utilizing community resources, working with parents, improving staff relationships, administering special school services, improving use of the plant, achieving professional growth, and understanding the administrative process. The material has been especially well selected and the presentation is lucid and

to the point. Excellent as a text for prospective elementary school administrators.

—William P. Sears

INTRODUCING HANDEL. By Kitty Barne. N. Y. Roy Publishers. 1957. \$2.00.

This little book tells a lot about George Frederick Handel, the celebrated composer of *Messiah*. The story of this German who elected to make England his home and who is today revered as one of England's foremost composers is a most interesting one. Handel travelled widely, was intimate with royalty, and was possessed of great genius. Young readers will find the book interesting and informative.—William P. Sears

THE TARNISHED TOWER. By Ann Marbut. N. Y. McKay. 1957. \$3.95.

College professors—and their wives—will enjoy this novel. It is a story of educational huckstering and of those college people who professionally "sell" Education, with the capital E. There are some horrible people in this story and we all have met them and many of us have seen through them as did Peg Scott in the novel. An unusual commentary on a noisome spot in American Education.—William P. Sears

THE MODERN RESEARCHER. By Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff. N. Y. Harcourt, Brace. 1957. \$4.50.

Graduate students preparing papers, research reports, and doctoral theses will find this book intensely interesting and most helpful. Departing from the traditional approach of volumes on research, the authors embark on the integrated and single pathway of "Research-and-Report." The book concentrates on principles of thought and the analysis. It illustrates both theory and practice by examples from numerous fields, and it shows how methods of work and devices of investigation stem from the characteristic features of typical problems. Never do the authors fail to stress the importance of better writing. The rudiments of the uses of sources and the validation of data are, also, emphasized. There are sound and practical suggestions and numerous examples. A fine bibliography completes this useful volume.—William P. Sears

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EDUCATION

VOL. 78

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Let's Read *and* Heed!

By ANN ESS MORROW

Pontiac High School

Pontiac, Michigan

Cause for Lament

"IF BOYS AND GIRLS would only think as they read!" Mrs. Jones remarked, and her tone was truly mournful. Maybe that was why she wore black that day.

"Think as they read!" exclaimed Mr. Loring. "I'd be grateful if they'd just think." He was somewhat impetuous himself and was inclined by his example to impart the trait to youngsters in his charge. "I always seem to have children who somersault into activities. Emotional acrobats I call them. They often suffer afterwards from consequences of their rash enthusiasm. Like the time Jane suggested free reading, and everyone thought that was wonderful. Why, several brought magazines that day with cover girls that needed covering!"

"And I'd be grateful if they'd just read," put in Miss Donahue. "My pills lack skills—no wonder they misbehave! And believe me, building background that should have been built grades ago is no fun when the book that's to be covered is dedicated to one grade level with people under and above it. For I do have one or two superior students

who crave a speedy pace," she added. "That makes them restless, too."

"Now mine think without reading," volunteered Mr. Thomas. "They're always quoting what someone told them, instead of ferreting it out from print. And everything is colored by emotion. There's just no reason to it, but plenty of reason for it, because it's so much easier that way."

"Mine think all right," observed Mrs. Anderson, known for her sense of humor. "They always think as they read—but the two don't go together quite like apple pie and cheese. They read about the Pilgrims and dream of the new little blonde across the room. Sometimes, though, they keep their thinking and their reading together, then veer off. Take a story about Pocohantas, for instance. They concentrate on Indians so hard first thing you know they're deep in powwow plans for Saturday night. Or else they're wondering how I'd look if I were scalped. They ought to know," she laughed. "I blew my top the other day."

Flippant and exaggerated though these remarks may be, there are elements of truth in them recognized by all of us.

Knowledge of Mechanics Essential

Truly thoughtful reading can best be done when boys and girls have freed themselves from a consciousness of the mechanics—when the reading process becomes a fluid activity, well lubricated, instead of halting or rusty. This brings about more glow than woe, for facility of reading will always be a source of pleasure. One is free to look beyond the words then and to come upon intended meaning. But when one's biggest goal in life sometimes is the verbalizing of a word that bothers with its bulk or startles with its strangeness or confuses with its connotation, meaning fades like a photographer's negative forgotten in the sun.

Meeting of Needs Vital

Yet it is not so simple as all that. For varying degrees of mastery of such reading skills as perception and recognition and attack will always exist in any heterogeneous classroom. And for these the worthwhile teacher must provide. Just helping boys and girls to read correctly, then, will advance them on the way to thought. And the way loses bumpiness and becomes highway smooth if there is a two-way variety within the group—variety of levels recognized and provided for, and variety of types of material to increase the possibilities of print appeal. Thus the aim of a teacher with a read-to-heed goal is to develop fluent readers, first of all—by development of basic skills and by meeting individual needs, a process worthy of thought as deep as that engaged in by that famous statue of Rodin. This will leave the children freedom to concentrate on meaning. For how can John think critically if he has not yet found the means of reading what he is to think about?

Thought Involved in Act of Reading

The very act of reading involves thought. Youngsters mend faulty pronunciation sometimes by learning how to blend; they arrive at meaning by obtaining clues from context. They identify words by recognition of parts, by associations, by careful observations of visual details. And once they do all this, they're not too far from starting on their way to locate information.

Inferences, too, they like to make. Even small children understand this art. "I'll tell Daddy if you don't behave," they're told at times.

"But if I do, she won't," the lad concludes. And weighs the fun involved against displeasure to be registered, and regulates his way of acting according to his decision. Surely if they understand a process, it is easier to apply it when they read.

Also in order to think effectively while reading, boys and girls must realize that different rates are both permissible and necessary—that speed is just as right at times as care and slowness are. And once Sue realizes that differences in people lead to differences in reading, she likewise comes to see that differences in purpose lead to differences in rate.

Emotional Problems as Deterrents

Mary Alice couldn't read well at all the other day—and couldn't answer questions afterwards about the story because she was obviously upset as she read. Something looming large upon her personal horizon had happened before she reached this room and kept putting itself between her and the printed pages. So that day she didn't think at all. She just pronounced words, and didn't even do that too well. But her teacher, Mr.

Henry, had much of Solomon in him. He did not chide or seek to pry before the group. He quietly asked if she'd care to stop in a few minutes after school, and called on someone who was not perturbed.

Later that day he listened to a story that unfolded in an atmosphere of sympathy and rapport, and just by listening helped to ease the emotional problem which Mary Alice was more easily able to solve. Next day she was her cheerful self. She read and thought well then.

Capturing of Interest Vital

Tom doesn't think much as he reads, either, unless he's reading of his dominating interest. It isn't just girls who are eager to meet that man in the moon, it seems. Tom hopes to make the trip himself some day, and searches out in print all he can about it. But he doesn't seem to like anything else. And because he doesn't like to read the assigned selections from Franklin's *Autobiography*, he doesn't even try to think. Miss Gleason recognizes this, fortunately, and tries to lure him into finding traits that Franklin had, like practicality and reasoning ability, that travelers in space would need. Before, he'd merely done a print-squint. But now he sees that they're connected, he, too, thinks.

Bewilderment a Negative Factor

Timothy is too bewildered by it all to think. To find suddenly that in a strange book he is to cover ten pages in a minimum of time in a class where he feels lost is just too much for him, who seems the counterpart of Alice in Wonderland. At least, he wonders what it's all about and how he'll manage to go on living, and when he thinks, he uses question marks lavishly, but most of them remain inside. If only he were in a class not quite so big, the teacher

would realize his problem and clear the fog away. But as in so many schools today, the class is far too big for one, yet not enough for two. And Timothy suffers for it.

Problem of Prejudice

Beverly discovers she is reading a spirited defense of the Republican party, when her entire family has long been steeped in donkey symbolism. And because she's sure she'll disagree with it the way her folks will do when she confides at home, she turns her thoughts off faucet-fashion, and lets not one opposing thought drop down. The challenge to the teacher now is clear—to show the need for tolerance and for ideas arrived at through one's reason, rather than through emotions or through ideas that come all packaged for posterity. It's so easy that way when opinions come all ready-made. Then no one has to think. When Beverly sheds her prejudice, she, too, will read with thoughts unhampered. No, it isn't just the dentists who need patients. Teachers do, too—a never-ending supply.

Establishment of Purpose Sought

John's problem is different. He can't read and think at all if he's not sure about the aim. If Mrs. Jones gives him an outline of questions to be answered in the reading, he is reassured. He knows what is expected, and he becomes secure. But like a country liberated suddenly from authoritarianism, he feels an overwhelming need to be told exactly what to do. But guidance like this can also be overdone and quell initiative. For boys and girls eventually must come to set their goals themselves. They never must rely on guidance so strongly that without it they are lost. And right there lies a danger.

Adjustment Needed to Techniques

Alice is the kind of reader that recognizes the technique that's needed, but somehow can't apply it. She knows that she should skim to find exactly how long ago it was that dinosaurs inhabited the earth, when she has only two minutes to find a needle answer tucked within a verbal haystack of perhaps some seven pages. But she hasn't yet learned to sweep along and light on partial phrases, to scoop up topic sentences and breeze through waiting pages. Her conscientiousness she applies to every word. Each one she says within herself as fast as possible, which really isn't fast at all, for other folks have left her pages back. Thus she concentrates on individual symbols with a multiplicity of jerky eye-fixations, when what she needs is rhythm of movement, with point of focus in the middle of a span grown large.

Jim's just the opposite. He knows that thoughtful reading is required here to find exactly why a certain person reacts the way he does—and he is so addicted to the printed drag-strip that when he does slow down, the squealing of his reading brakes counteracts the sound the meaning makes.

Again, the alert teacher notes all this and offers exercises that provide opportunities to practice skills. She uses reading exercises that are timed by way of stimulating rate, and tests the comprehension of the children by determining the accuracy with which they answer questions that relate to subject-matter.

She uses reading as a means of strengthening vocabulary and of studying words in parts and whole, facilitating better understanding of the way that words are spelled and said. She gives the students paragraphs designed to bolster word attack and to

show them further how to blend. She also checks on use of context as an aid to meaning.

The children find it challenging to keep a record of their growth of skill. They closely watch the charts they sometimes make and feel an academic glow when real improvement shows. They come to see the techniques personally needed and eventually are able to apply them.

Dr. Byron Van Roeckel of Michigan State University has a plan for encouraging this skill. He advocates for this a three-minute reading exercise each day as class begins, an exercise the purpose of which changes with the date. One day they read to find a fact designated by the teacher; another, to find a passage and interpret; and then again, to summarize. And as the purpose changes, the children see that rate and technique also change.

Figurative Language Difficult

Figurative language, too, is cause for thought. On conversational level, this creates no problem, for similes and metaphors are raisins in the dough of common speech. Ellen knows that Tom's a square although he's more rotund than angular; and Sally Lou will always be a doll, despite vivacity and pace that keeps her breathing fast. But when *Poor Richard* states that hunger's like a pickle, or Shakespeare claims that all the world's a stage, she looks a bit incredulous and shifts to literal thought. Like others, she's perturbed by the imaginative quality of figurative speech. Yet through the skillful guidance of the teacher, she must come to see the beauty of figurative expressions that give life and color to ideas that otherwise might wear an ordinary look.

Teacher's Role Significant

The teacher, then, must develop judgment, both in herself and others. She must know how to cater to the individual needs of boys and girls and then act upon the knowledge. She must have the children come to see that some statements are emotional and colored by one's viewpoint—like "Rainy days are awful." Perhaps they are to picnic planners or to those who launder with no dryer inside or who walk from beauty shops unprotected from the deluge. But ducks and gardeners and raincoat salesmen find the day delightful. Some statements, however, are based on logic and cannot ever be changed—the proverb kind—like practice that makes perfect. The children know that statement well and so accept it with a gesture. Yet Gerry is a child who really thinks. He quickly adds that it should be the kind of practice that is right for that particular skill, or practice of the wrong technique will only hinder.

Critical Thinking Fostered

As they read, too, they must come to recognize that some folks are much more qualified to give opinion than others who may even shout in print. Thus elderly folks who have no children sometimes think from tales they read all teenagers are wild. A teacher

who deals with them knows how wrong this is. Besides, if anyone is wild, *she is!* She guides them into seeing they should test authority, to see if experience and background warrant belief in what is said. Or if the statement's one of prejudice, then what has caused all this, and what is being overlooked, and how can this be fairly put?

Under skillful guidance, they come to identify such factors as they read, and then they list the errors in thinking. Perhaps the facts are insufficient for generalization; or maybe they're not even related, like voting for a student representative because she's cute. They must evaluate and challenge opinions that they find untrustworthy and veer from jackrabbit thinking, with its emotional hippety-hop from bases insecure. And they must come to realize, too, that sometimes statements are for general acceptance, that there are times we do not challenge.

Thus they must learn to weigh, to evaluate with wisdom, rather than with emotion. And teachers must recognize and act upon these facts if they're to guide the wise way. For in the words of Josiah Royce, "Thinking is like loving and dying. Each of us must do it for himself." Only when this process accompanies interpretation of the printed symbol has one really learned to read and heed.

Parents *and* Reading

By EMMETT ALBERT BETTS
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LAST WEEK a parent came to us upset by a book attacking ALL schools. He was confused by the statements of an irresponsible alarmist and the fact that his own nine-year old Danny was having trouble with reading. He said that he wanted to know the facts so he could do something sensible about the situation.

There are many other level-headed parents like Danny's father, asking for the facts about how reading is taught in our schools today. They know that when an alarmist indicts all schools, all teachers, all methods, and all textbooks, he is like the soldier who claims that everyone is out of step except himself. Thinking parents know that schools are not ALL good or ALL bad; that teachers are not ALL stupid or ALL geniuses.

Danny's father wanted some facts so that he could draw a reasonable conclusion and take sensible action.

From Danny's mother we learned that he had been late in learning to use words and sentences. Our tests showed that Danny's visual skills were not up to par for reading. We agreed that Danny had been forced into reading before he was ready.

Both the parents and the school had failed because Danny had normal intelligence but could read only a primer. In a first-reader he began to flounder; a second-reader was beyond his poor powers.

Danny's parents were in a mood for a serious discussion of what parents could do. Here are some points which made some sense to them:

1. Expect boys to be slower than girls

in getting on to the knack of reading.

Boys generally are slower in learning to talk. They are more likely to have speech difficulties. And they are more likely to be color blind. Moreover, the odds are better than four to one that a child having difficulty with reading is a boy. Therefore, don't force your boy into the first grade until he is at least six years of age—and be sensible about your little girl.

2. Keep a record of your child's development, including facts about his birth.

Age of crawling, standing, walking, teething, talking, establishing bladder and bowel control, buttoning clothes, tying shoe laces—all these facts help teachers and child psychologists to understand educational needs. For example, daytime and night-time bladder control may indicate a need for a medical examination or a study of the child's emotional health. Lateness in learning to talk and to use sentences may have a direct bearing on when your child is ready to learn to read.

3. Make sure your child is visually ready for school.

You are responsible for taking your child to a vision specialist once a year—and especially before he starts school. You should make sure that his eyes are O.K. and, equally important, that his visual skills are up to par. Remember that screening tests used in

schools to detect visual handicaps are no substitute for diagnostic tests by a competent vision specialist.

4. Expect big differences in the ages at which children learn to read.

Recently charlatans have been telling parents that ALL children can be taught to read at age five. This cannot be done in the United States and is not being done anywhere else in the world. Such statements are contrary to fact.

For many reasons, children learn to talk at different ages. For more reasons, they learn to read at different ages. We have seen a few three-year-olds who could read third readers and a few nine-year-old who were not ready to learn to read.

5. Find out why your child is having difficulty with reading.

Every week we see at least one mother who has cried herself to sleep every school night for years because her child has not learned to read. Sometimes the facts have been covered up by so-called social promotions in the schools. Nevertheless, neither the mother nor the schools can keep the facts from the child who must live in a world of reading.

The best solution to any problem is to get the facts from which to draw conclusions: Is my child

mentally retarded? Is he brain injured? Is he tied to my apron strings? Is he trying to read material entirely too difficult? Can he learn to read by techniques which go beyond traditional phonic and look-say methods? Get the facts on your child and see that he gets the right help.

Above all, get on the job if your child has not gotten the hang of reading by age 7! The longer you wait the more confused your child may be. And the more difficult it will be to untie his emotional knots.

6. Think many times before having your child repeat a grade.

No good and much harm may be done by having a child repeat third or eighth grade when he cannot read a first reader. It is equally absurd to drill a high school student on algebra when he doesn't know the facts of simple arithmetic. Likewise, it may be silly to have a child repeat a regular first grade when he cannot learn by the methods which his teacher uses.

Danny's parents were beginning to see that they needed to understand as well as to love him. That they could not afford to sit on the sidelines when he needed help on reading. In fact, they have asked for more time to go deeper into the problem.

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Some "Bright" Ideas *for* Parents

By I. R. ANONYMOUS

Parent-Education Specialist

Free Tips, Old Jersey

GEORGE I. KNOWIT isn't much different from most of us. He has some of the *best* tips on how to raise the other fellow's children. Give him a chance and he'll buttonhole you on the subject any old time of the day. The trouble is, his secrets of successful parenthood apply more to the other fellow than to his own family. But at least his advice is free—you don't have to take it if you don't want to. And he does have a sense of humor. Once he remarked, "Don't worry about the idiocies of the younger generation. I was like that, and look how I turned out."

Another fountain of "good" advice regarding child rearing is the garrulous Mrs. Alice MacGurgle. And she ought to know! She's had more problems with her two children than you can shake a stick at. Furthermore, each problem is a springboard from which to propel advice to her friends and neighbors. In her treasure house of wisdom are such sage sayings as "Spare the rod and spoil the child," and "Children should be seen and not heard." Once she amazed even herself by noting that "Children aren't happy with nothing to ignore. And that's what parents were created for."

Another wise old bird in the ways of parent-child relationships is the writer of this article. Although he hasn't turned out quite as well as George, he at least is one up on Alyce as far as children are concerned. And he does have these points in common with the two "experts": (1) His advice is usually free (witness this magazine article), (2) it is often spontaneous and un-

solicited, and (3) it usually is taken with a big dash of salt.

But now to the business at hand! No doubt the reader has been sitting on pins and needles during the prologue of this article while his eyes have been darting across the page in search of the secrets of successful parenthood. His search is now to be rewarded for here they are:

1. *Give children a free rein at home.* Obviously little children can't be expected to assume any responsibilities. Furthermore they are only young once. Let them enjoy themselves and whoop it up! Anyway, it's sort of fun to pick up after them. And they are so awfully cute doing just what comes naturally. And clever too! Just like Sammy whose mother said, "Sammy, there were two pieces of pie in the pantry this morning and now there is only one. How is that?" To which Sammy pertly replied, "I don't know. It was so dark I guess I didn't see the other piece."

2. *Let the children know who's Boss.* There is nothing so good for a child's character as to be brought up in a home where he is constantly told *what's what!* In the first place, if the father or the mother is really and truly a "Big Boss" in the home, the children won't have to spend any of their time *thinking*. Instead they can learn to respond to push-button orders and thus they become efficient like machines, which they will then be. Of course, sometimes these children, as they grow older, may be inclined to want to turn the tables. Like the farm boy who always was two or three paces behind his

domineering father when they walked down the streets of their little village. After World War II he returned to the farm and the villagers soon witnessed a strange sight. The son was walking down the street with his father two or three paces *behind him*. Perhaps, though, it might be better to be a *little* less bossy as was the father described by eight-year-old Donald who proudly remarked, "Pop lets me take 'accordine' lessons. He lets me practice outside. When I practice outside he goes inside. He can tell better how it sounds from a distance. My pop sure likes music."

3. *Be palsy-walsy with your children.* There is nothing like an intimate, buddy-buddy relationship between the parent and the child. Some mothers help work this out by having dresses made so that they look just like their daughters, except for being a little taller and wider, here and there. And it is so nice when the young daughter feels free to call her mother *Mary* or *Henrietta* depending, of course, upon what the mother's given name really is. Being palsy-walsy with your children also helps them grow up faster socially, so that they won't have so much need for friends of their own age. Furthermore, it reduces the effort that mothers and fathers must make to socialize with other adults. Best of all, if parents work hard enough at this tied-to-your-children's-fancies relationship, they can retain their own childish attitudes and the children will grow up to be greatly dependent on the old folks at home. Everybody will profit by this arrangement except the members of the family and the people with whom they come in contact.

4. *Don't ever let your children take chances.* Some parents don't seem to care about what happens to their children. They let them climb in trees, slide down snow-covered hills, and even

play football. And I've seen some of these parents who, when their children did get hurt, acted as calm as a cucumber. Ain't they got no heart? Now the type of parents I approve of are more like Mary's mother. The other day I heard her say, "Mary, you may play with the little girls but not with the boys because they are too rough." "But, Mother," Mary replied, "If I find a little boy who is very *smooth*, may I play with him?" You see what I mean? *Mary's mother knows how to protect her*. She won't let *her* take any chances.

5. *Teach them that grandparents are old foggies.* It is ostensibly bad psychology to expect children to be respectful of the older generation. Such an attitude is contrary to the laws of logical thinking. On the other hand, children should be taught early in life that most older people are set in their ways, unsympathetic, and full of rather silly notions regarding life in general. The most successful parents will even go out of their way to put Grandma and Grandpa in their places. If they do this often enough then *child guidance* will become that which parents are getting from their children. This idea is especially important if you want your children to become likable and modest like the two students who had been nominated for class offices. "What do you think of the two candidates?" asked the principal. "Well," replied the teacher, "The more I think of it, the more pleased I am that only one of them can be elected."

6. *Make a special effort to hurry through all meals.* It seems ridiculous that, in this busy world of ours, some families should spend such a long time at the dinner table. The writer even knows one family where two or three times a week the parents and children "dress" for dinner. What snobbery!

This family uses its best dishes on these occasions *and they don't even have company*. And of all things they sometimes have flowers on the table. Who in the world can eat flowers, or anything else, for such a long time without getting too full? Is this family just trying to put on weight? Oh, yes, I've heard that some of the time is spent in pleasant conversation, talking about the experiences which the individual members of the family have found interesting during the day. Looks like a lot of tomfoolery to me. Personally, I belong to the Gobble, Gabble, Giddle, Git School.

7. *Never overlook a chance to point out your children's faults.* As Johnnie grew up, he had the usual number of faults for children of his age. Being a proud woman, his mother made it a point to call each and every one of them to his attention—usually in a scolding tone of voice. She wanted to be sure that her little boy grew up in the right way. So, if he accidentally spilled his milk she would either call him “naughty” or ridicule him as being a “little baby.” Should he track a little mud into the house, the din of further scolding was sure to be an automatic response from this letter-of-the-law parent. You might say that Johnnie had push-button magic, since every minor misdeed brought push-button response. And so, as Johnnie grew up, he learned expertly *not* to listen. He also developed the attitude that adult advice is to be taken like rain on the back of a duck. *Moral:* If parents want their children to belong to the *Don't Listen Party*, whose symbol is an earmuff, be sure from their babyhood on, to harp on all minor (but natural for their age) weaknesses. And those children who don't develop the non-listening habit are at least likely to develop either a beautiful case of

inferiority or a dandy attitude of resentment.

8. *By example, show your children what not to be or do.* St. Augustine once said, “That by which I live, I impart.” But then probably he was an old fogey, and modern psychology teaches us that children avoid being like their parents. Thus, if you are kind and thoughtful, your children, just to be contrary, will grow up to be mean and thoughtless. Following this logical line of reasoning, it behooves parents to be careless in dress, boisterous in talk, discourteous with other members of the family, evasive of the law, as for instance going through a stop light “if the cop isn't looking.” Or perhaps you especially want your children to have a good attitude towards their teachers. If this is the case, all you have to do is to run their teachers down at every possible opportunity. The children, in turn, will think that their teachers are just *wonderful*. Yes, parents, here is a mighty good rule for developing well-behaved children; *just demonstrate in your own living what you don't want them to become.*

A Final Word

Of course, I've been only kidding. Or perhaps it wasn't quite kidding; for too many people, whether they believe it or not, are inclined to handle their children according to the upside-down-rules of this article. And sometimes we may give a serious matter better attention if we approach it through the back door.

How would you score on the above 8-point test? Got every point right? Too bad, you had better send your children to the nearest orphans' home. Or are you feeling pretty low because you didn't get a single one right? Cheer up! *You are a perfect parent.*

Some Problems of the Amputee Child in School*

By

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and

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THE PROBLEMS faced by children who have lost arms or legs are being intensively investigated in a number of centers across the country. Enough has been learned from these programs to provide some information to those concerned with the education of these children to help them continue and reinforce the rehabilitation process. Although not previously considered a part of the therapy group, the teacher is in the position to destroy or nourish the fruits of rehabilitation by her influence on the social interaction within the schoolroom. Some recommendations of interest to teachers, particularly in the elementary school, can be made.

It is clear that many juvenile amputees are not significantly handicapped when properly treated. The modern rehabilitation regimen involves surgeons and nurses, prosthetists who make artificial limbs, therapists who work to restore function, and finally the family, a dominant element in any rehabilitation process. Treatment cannot be considered terminated, however, until the child is fully integrated into familial and other appropriate social groups. When the child appears in school, the teacher becomes a member of the "treatment team," taking over from the clinical group. It should be emphasized

that the teacher cannot play a neutral role. It is impossible for her to have no influence.

Psychological Aspects

Basic to an understanding of the teacher's role in serving the amputee child is a comprehension of the psychological situation of the child, his physical and functional capabilities and an awareness of problems peculiar to amputees. Considered in this discussion are the psychological status of the juvenile amputee, his preparation for school, the attitude of the teacher toward the child, and the special problems of acceptance of help, invalidism, and goal setting.

In a previous issue of this journal, Garrett discussed some of the psychological aspects of physical disability. (1) In this article, he summarized a number of the major findings presented in the literature of interest to educators. He pointed out that the social status of the physically disabled child is analogous to that of minority group members, placing these children into a situation where feelings of inferiority and worthlessness develop. Since in many respects the disabled youngster is limited in function, he is prone to become dependent upon an over-protective instructor. Gar-

*We would like to express our thanks to Doctors Sidney Fishman and Samuel A. Weiss, and Messrs. Hector W. Kay and Bertram Litt for their constructive criticism of the original manuscript.

ret suggests, therefore, that the teacher must guard against situations leading to feelings of inferiority and dependence. Since valuation of self is related to bodily prowess in dealing with peers, the problem of developing an adequate and positive self-concept in the disabled child is of concern. This becomes particularly acute as there is often a conflict between the culturally favored "rugged individualism" and feelings of dependency. The teacher's role here must be that of a supportive agent for the youngster attempting to deal with these problems.

One may best understand the psychological alterations arising from the disease process by considering the pre-traumatic personality of the child to the extent possible. In fact, most workers in the field believe that previous personality patterns are so important that disease or disability serve merely to exacerbate previous non-desirable characteristics. Garrett concludes that acceptance of disability and the willingness to overcome it are probably the most decisive steps the disabled person can take. Since setting of goals is basic to acceptance of disability, the teacher can contribute in the development of substitute goals which are achievable in the light of the child's abilities. In order for these goals to lead to sound personal growth, they must be stimulated rather than simulated. Two particularly important goals that the disabled individual can develop are a constructive personal philosophy and religious feeling.

Recent surveys of child amputees have contributed additional insights into these problems. Ventur (3) in a study of sixteen amputee children found dependency relationships to be a fre-

quently encountered emotional conflict.

Siller (2), studying twenty-four child amputees, found feelings of inferiority and shame to be important components in the psychological functioning of more than one-third of the subjects, and most particularly among amputees of traumatic origin. Ratings of good adjustments were very strongly associated with attempts to compensate and replace or restore the loss suffered from amputation; poor adjustment was closely associated with techniques which aimed for avoidance of the implications of the loss such as denial of amputation, repressive mechanisms, withdrawal, etc. It is thus evident that everything done to increase feelings of adequacy and to encourage restitutive efforts is desirable. This may be done by a pre-school orientation of all concerned—child, parent, teacher, fellow students.

Preparation for School

Prosthetic replacement of the lost member should take place as early as possible. While the exact definition of early varies from expert to expert, all agree that this should be done before the child is ready to enter school in the case of congenital amputees, and as soon after the trauma as possible for those children who suffer limb loss through accident or disease. Early prosthetic fitting serves the double function of enabling the child to incorporate the prosthesis into his self and body image as well as to minimize the potential psychological trauma which may arise from an unusual physical appearance.

A particular problem develops when parents delay fitting of a prosthesis until the child is ready to go to school or until after the child has entered school.

Proficient use of a prosthesis requires in most cases an intensive training program by a qualified therapist followed by approximately a year of constant wear and practice with the device. Such training serves to motivate the child to use the prosthesis and also to minimize embarrassment due to awkward appearance and inefficient function.

It is important to avoid great physical change during the school term. For example, if a child previously accepted by his schoolmates as an armless person were suddenly and without forewarning to appear among them wearing a prosthetic device, a re-evaluation of his status might be precipitated. The curiosity of his peers coupled with the awkwardness of the new user lead to difficulty. Such a case arose in the experience of the authors when a very intelligent boy of ten, although properly fitted with a prosthesis, would not wear his arm to school because he had obtained it in the middle of the term. He was afraid that his status in the group, which he believed to be that of "one of the bunch", might be altered negatively. In another case, a boy of twelve with a well-fitted, properly adjusted arm also refused to wear it to school. The first day he appeared wearing it he was dubbed "Captain Hook".

These are but two situations faced by the child amputee who is fitted with an artificial arm after having been accepted among his peers without it. However, even the child who is properly fitted and trained prior to entering school must cope with the initial reactions of his classmates. The teacher's rôle as a member of the treatment team and counselor to the parents is to identify the dangers inherent in these situations and to take positive steps to circumvent them.

Introduction to Class

The initial contact between the amputee child and the class should not be fortuitous. It is better that the teacher and parent together agree upon some plan for introducing the child. A number of methods have been used ranging from no introduction (for example, when the child is already known to a majority of the class) to what might be considered an ostentatious or aggressive presentation. Experience has shown that introducing the child to his classmates had the most salutary results when both child and class had been previously prepared for the event in a non-dramatic, frank manner. A practical plan includes:

A. A meeting between the parent and teacher

Some insight into the personality of the child may be derived by the teacher at this time. Forewarned in this way, some of the more obvious pitfalls in the teacher-child and child-class interactions may be avoided.

B. Development of personal familiarity between the teacher and child before he is introduced to the other children

Presentation to an entirely new group, and in the case of children starting school, into a totally new and threatening situation may be a shock. This can be buffered by the prior development of rapport between the teacher and the child so that he perceives an ally in the teacher. The initial meeting may also serve to dissipate any feelings of strangeness which the teacher herself might entertain.

C. Preparation of the class to meet the amputee

The teacher should inform the class of the child's impending arrival and of his physical condition. This discussion will be most effective when conducted matter-of-factly and with only casual reference to disability. Its effectiveness may be enhanced by *greater emphasis upon the extent of functional restoration afforded by the prosthesis than on the remaining disability*. If in the discussion of the prosthesis the high degree of scientific achievement it represents is underscored, the status position of the child may benefit.

D. Presentation to the class

No one technique can be considered best for all situations. One method may be a simple introduction with no further ado, after which the child is permitted to find his own level in the normal social interaction of the class. If, in the judgment of the teacher it is warranted, the introduction may also include a simple demonstration of the functional ability of the child. In no case should the introduction be used to make a special person of him. It should not be protracted or excessively personal. If the steps up to this point have been effective, the teacher's job in introducing the child is fulfilled, although particularly in the early stages she should be in a position to re-enter the situation to maintain desirable interactions.

Underlying these empirically derived recommendations is the following theoretical rationale. When a proper introduction to the class is made and the child unselfconsciously demonstrates his functional proficiency, it is likely that he will be accepted by the other children. The other children do not now have to experience the anxiety which often accompanies dealings with those

who are "different". They need not feel the strain that laymen experience when meeting an amputee. In the latter situation the strain experienced by the non-amputee makes him feel *uncomfortable and resentful of the special adjustment he must make to the amputee*. He may therefore employ avoidance techniques which are seen by the amputee as rejection thus accentuating the strain in this interpersonal relationship. Children, on the other hand, are likely to dissipate their feelings of strain and resentment by *aggression* as well as avoidance. Anything which reduces the strain-provoking potential of the amputee thus leads to better interpersonal relations.

E. Parents' role

The task for the teacher will be simplified to whatever extent the child has been prepared by the parent. Although parent-child relationships cannot be considered here, one aspect may be mentioned. *The child must be prepared for rebuffs without being sensitized to look for insults*. For example, with younger children, there are many games which involve group activities calling for hand-holding. While there are no figures dealing with the scope of this problem, it is our impression that resistance to hand-holding per se is not too important. When it does happen, however, it certainly has a traumatic potential. This is a situation which might lead to withdrawal on the part of the child if immediate corrective steps are not taken. In this case the most expeditious action is for the teacher herself to take hold of the child's prosthesis, preferably without any other comment, and to prevent a recurrence of the incident by selecting the next partner for the am-

putee from among those without aversion.

These recommendations arose from a number of experiences. Some illustrative incidents were:

A girl, the youngest of three children, described by her mother as very extroverted, if not exhibitionistic, was introduced to the class by the teacher. Prior to this Mrs. P. had met with the teacher and discussed her daughter's introduction. The child was immediately accepted into the group and soon was demonstrating her arm to all comers. She is presently in the fifth grade and has had only one really negative encounter. At that time, characteristically enough, she reciprocated with a tart comeback and felt herself to be the "victor". Although she does not particularly care for the scholastic aspect of school she is quite the social butterfly.

Another child, a nine-year-old girl was badly burned in an electrical accident, losing her arm at the shoulder, was re-introduced to her classmates after a prolonged absence. Since she was previously known to the class, only a cursory attempt to prepare her and the class for her return was made. This child became withdrawn and highly defensive in her responses to the questions of her classmates. This situation did not improve until the teacher, concerned with the turn of events, sought the help of the child's guardian and a social worker trained in the rehabilitation of amputees. Armed with the information given to her by them, the teacher re-established control of the situation and at last report had partially mended the rift between the child and the class.

In a third instance, a boy of thirteen who had lost both arms and a girl of twelve who had lost one arm were admitted to school simultaneously. In this

case care was taken to acquaint the teacher with the nature of their disabilities and with the extent of the children's functional capability. Secondly, the class was carefully apprised of the physical condition of its two newest members, after which the children were introduced. At this time, with somewhat more ostentation than is usual, the children demonstrated their ability to handle and transport various objects. In addition, they answered questions which members of the class asked about their artificial arms.

These two children were unable to recall the development of a single negative reaction between either of them and members of their class. On the contrary, they believed that they occupied entirely satisfactory social positions among their schoolmates. This pair soon became known as "Captain and Mrs. Hook," but interestingly enough, the term had no derogatory connotation for either of them and was mentioned with a sense of pride.

These anecdotes also illustrate that although successful integration of the child amputee into the normal school life is not solely dependent upon the teacher's rôle, her mediation can contribute effectively to that end.

Degree of Disability

The usefulness of the procedures outlined above is reinforced by a fundamental knowledge of the effectiveness with which the amputee child is capable of performing. The child with an amputation of the leg or of the lower levels of the arm is generally capable of the physical activity required in school. The problem with the lower extremity amputee is perhaps less serious than with the arm amputee. The functional restoration afforded by artificial legs is su-

perior to that of artificial arms (4). Children who have lost a leg can move about and carry out work without a great deal of difficulty. In so doing, their appearance is generally not too conspicuous. This becomes less true as the level of amputation approaches the hip and especially when both sides are involved.

This is not to say that a number of problems for leg amputees do not remain, e.g., a child's functioning and appearance in gym classes where shorts are often required.* On the other hand, the arm amputee is generally more conspicuous and the available prostheses do not restore function to the degree afforded in lower extremity prostheses. Despite this, the unilateral amputee is generally capable of all the functional requirements of school life. A rough estimate of the degree of functional loss resulting from the amputation may be made by reference to the extent of the arm loss. In general, the closer the amputation to the shoulder, the more disabling it is. Knowing this, the teacher is in a position to guard against embarrassment and the development of "invalidism". Prevention of embarrassment is obvious and need not be dwelt upon here. However, the question of invalidism does warrant some discussion.

Invalidism

Invalidism is a neurotic reaction to disability which has as its function the derivation of satisfactions which the child does not feel he can obtain by more socially acceptable methods. By employing this neurotic mechanism (usually unconsciously) children and

adults are able to manipulate and control those around them as well as to express hostility safely. The major point to consider in regard to invalidism is that despite the observed maladjustment and frequent self-harm incurred, the individual utilizing it does derive certain satisfactions.

Invalidism, therefore, will not be resorted to unless it "pays off". Since it is relatively easy for the child to employ this mechanism in the home setting, he may also try to utilize it in school. Teacher and classmate can very easily contribute to this neurotic pattern by injudicious and misplaced feelings of sympathy or pity. On the other hand, if invalidism, as differentiated from real inability, is recognized and combatted, the job of the teacher becomes much simpler and her efforts contribute to the abatement or abandonment of this mechanism. From another standpoint other children are quick to recognize manipulative attempts and to downgrade the child both in status and acceptance. This may in turn serve to reinforce the neurotic pattern and very often cause the withdrawal of the child from social situations and further distort his interpersonal relationships.

Obtainable Goals

Realistically there is only one goal for the amputee child: to be as completely integrated into the social, intellectual and recreational societies of the school as his physical and psychological condition permit. The teacher who is aware of the functional capabilities and limitations of the amputee child and of the potential for personality distortion has the basis for the development of

* Authors have no data bearing on this particular problem and would be very much interested in communicating with anyone who has faced this situation. We would also be very much interested in information regarding any of the other points, particularly entrance to school, discussed in this paper.

reasonable and achievable goals for the disabled child.

Successful experiences arising from achieved goals contribute to the development of self-esteem and counteract the previously noted tendency toward self-devaluation. They can also serve to buttress social status. With increasing self-esteem and improving social status, growth of independence may be expected. Not until the child has achieved a reasonable measure of independence can equality in peer relationships be attained.

In this connection a distinction should be made between true independence, which is based upon a person's realistic appraisal of his condition and potential, and pseudo-independence, which represents a protective mechanism which masks a refusal to face the reality situation. True independence has been achieved when the child is not only able to use proffered help, but when he is also able to ask for it in appropriate circumstances.

It is not unusual for a disabled in-

dividual to resent aid which is offered him. While this might be a function of pseudo-independence and thus reflective of an undesirable psychological attitude, it might also be the response of a person justifiably insulted by totally unnecessary offers of help. Particularly hard to bear is the devaluation of the amputee as a person which is often implicit in the offer of aid. Unnecessary offers of help might contribute to lowering the status of the child by placing him in a subordinate position, as well as one which sets him off from his peers. It also contributes to the self-derogation to which such children are very susceptible. Assistance is less likely to be judged out of order if the donor is aware that it is helpful only when the recipient desires it. This means that although a person may need assistance, he does not always want it. To accept help in such circumstances might serve to provide trivial satisfactions at the cost of something infinitely more important—self-esteem.

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The Student and His **Total Environment***

By CLARK KERR

Chancellor of the University of California, Berkeley

WHEN THOMAS JEFFERSON, in 1779, introduced his "Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge," he was prompted by a realization of the supreme importance of education to a free society. His clear recognition of the dynamic nature of the relationship between education and freedom which has been adopted as the theme of this Conference is evident in Section I of his bill, from which I quote the two main arguments introducing his proposal to set up a system of free public education:

"... it appeareth that however certain forms of government are better calculated than others to protect individuals in the free exercise of their natural rights, . . . yet experience hath shewn, that even under the best forms, those entrusted with power have, in time, and by slow operations perverted it into tyranny; and it is believed that the most effectual means of preventing this would be, to illuminate, as far as practicable, the minds of the people at large, and more especially to give them knowledge of those facts, which history exhibiteth, that, possessed thereby of the experience of other ages and countries, they may be enabled to know ambition under all its shapes, and prompt to exert their natural powers to defeat its purposes;

"And . . . it is generally true that people will be happiest whose laws are best, and are best administered, and that laws will be wisely formed, and honestly administered, in proportion as those who form and administer them are wise

and honest; whence it becomes expedient for promoting the public happiness that those persons whom nature hath endowed with genius and virtue, should be rendered by liberal education worthy to receive, and able to guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow citizens, and that they should be called to that charge without regard to wealth, birth, or other accidental condition or circumstance. ."

From these excerpts, it is clear that Jefferson conceived the two functions of education in a new society to be the development of leaders, and the enlightenment of the minds of all citizens so that they may be able to exercise their freedom intelligently, and to protect it. Those to be educated as leaders, moreover, are to be selected on the grounds of ability, "without regard to wealth, birth, or other accidental condition or circumstances."

It is fair to say that this concept still represents our ideal of education, and that to a large extent our aspirations toward this concept have shaped our present educational system. Because, following Jefferson, we conceive that education is the chief and best road to advancement, and because our citizens differ considerably in their interests and abilities, we have made our educational system large and diverse.

Because our population is growing enormously, our educational system is going to get larger. Its diversification

*An address delivered at the 37th Annual Convention of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, San Francisco, March 29, 1957.

also may well increase, responding to increasing demands for specially trained experts and leaders. But the growing size and increasing diversity of our educational system carry a potential threat to the very ideal of education from which, initially, they grew.

Jefferson, living in a pre-industrial society (what we would call today an under-developed economy), and in an age when one intelligent man could reasonably assume all knowledge to be his province, could have no pre-vision of the many different kinds of specialists and experts which the free system of public education he advocated would in our day be called upon to develop. He therefore could not have foreseen our present danger of educating each man to be a specialist in a narrow professional or occupational skill (whether this skill be nuclear physics or poultry husbandry), while leaving him unfamiliar with his neighbor's concerns, ignorant of the larger world and its affairs. Such a man as this cannot be the able guardian of his own interest and freedom that Jefferson envisioned; and he is certainly not equipped to pass judgment on common concerns. He will all too easily surrender his right of choice to anyone who desires it—or, if he finds the world sufficiently confusing, may even demand that he be relieved of the burden of making choices.

David Riesman and Erich Fromm, among other observers, have given us important insights into the compulsion felt by such an individual to seek escape from the freedom which he is neither intellectually nor emotionally equipped to handle. The tendency toward escape is accentuated by the complexity and impersonality of modern life, in which it happens all too

frequently that a person is isolated not only in his occupation, but is forced into a position of moral isolation as well. Totalitarian systems, both left-and right-wing, are able to offer him a numbing, irrational attraction which is one of the most deadly dangers of our time.

Moreover, even though he may not be attracted by an overtly totalitarian system, he may still surrender his independence to the force of group opinions and group standards. This growing tendency to submit the private personality to group standards is explored both entertainingly and forebodingly by William H. Whyte in his recent book, "The Organization or Man."

Another recent book, one not yet officially published, ("Changing Values in College" by Philip E. Jacob), indicates that the typical American undergraduate today may be the perfect "organization man" in embryo. He cheerfully expects "to conform to the economic *status quo* and to receive ample rewards for dutiful and productive effort." He anticipates "no die-hard struggle for survival of the fittest as each seeks to gratify his own desires, but rather an abundance for all as each one teams up with his fellow self-seekers in appointed places on the American assembly-line." The top-listed rewards which he craves from his higher education are "Vocational preparation, and skill and experience in social 'adjustment' . . ."

I am not decrying organization and specialization *per se*, because obviously their positive advantages, leading to stability of society and a higher standard of living, are tremendous. But these advantages do exact their price. For them we must be prepared to yield some of our independence; but it is important to take care that the price we pay

not be too high,—we must take care, in short, that a good balance is kept between the benefits and the dangers of specialization. But Mr. Whyte's "organization man" and Mr. Jacob's typical undergraduate seem actually to enjoy paying the too-high price; they seem to find the lessening of their individual independence a good thing. In them, individual conscience has been displaced by blind acceptance of group standards, and loyalty has become an end in itself. In them, the balance between the benefits and dangers of specialization has been virtually lost.

Perhaps, in view of Mr. Jacob's discouraging profile of the typical American undergraduate, I am being over-confident in proposing that our schools should take the responsibility of helping to preserve, and where necessary to restore, this balance. Their greatest problem for today and for years to come is to unite the equally urgent demands from our technology and from our society into a system of education which will create the proper balance within itself and within each individual student. Mr. Jacob does find, however, that some small colleges, and even some schools or divisions of large public universities, have been able to create environments favorable to a redirection of student values. Perhaps, therefore, it is reasonable to explore what should be done by our schools to meet this challenge.

As an approach to this problem, I should like to put forward for your consideration four basic propositions. First of all, I would suggest that the danger does not lie in specialized education itself, but in any education which does not prepare the student for the value choices he will have to make as a citizen. Second, it seems reasonable that the

ability to make these choices will not be gained by experience with democratic procedures alone, but that these will be meaningful to the student only if he knows to what ends they are directed—if he understands that they are the means by which a free society is maintained, and if he knows the consequences which follow from abandonment of either the means or the ends. Third, I would argue that a student must have certain kinds of knowledge—a familiarity with the large society—in order to understand the meaning of his choice, and to relate his choice to its effects. And finally, it seems necessary, if the student is to accept the values of this free society, that he feel himself a member of it.

These insights provide a framework for the implementation of our educational policy in three areas: curriculum planning within the schools; curriculum articulation among schools; and value-oriented planning for extracurricular student concerns. Our object should be the same in every instance: courses, programs, and all other facilities of the educational system should strengthen the student's capacity to live in a free society as a responsible citizen, and should treat the development of his personal talents and particular skills as an integral aspect of this aim. The object, in sum, should be to neutralize divisive pressures by treating specialized fields of knowledge as developments from the same broad base of underlying knowledge, principles, and values.

In the curriculum of every school, from the upper elementary grades to the universities, I believe that this aim can be realized best by emphasizing a core program of general education for all students, irrespective of their specialized interests. Courses which cover

basic concepts in the humanities, the social sciences, and the physical sciences should be taught not only to impart facts, but to familiarize each student with the cultural, intellectual and ethical traditions of western civilization—to teach him the habits of mind by which our society has developed and upon which it depends. This will give him a base of values from which to judge ideas and to make choices among them.

As the student moves through the school system, general education should be a link between his own studies at every level, and a link to the work of others; he will then be able to view his occupational or professional training from a broad enough perspective to relate it to the activities of others, and to world affairs.

Moreover, a close articulation among school curricula in their general educational work should contribute to a fluid and rational pattern of specialization.

The student's selection of an occupation might be made in high school or could be postponed to the college level; within that period, he would be offered alternative opportunities at every level but would not be committed to a program which would preclude his going on to more advanced work.

Any such integration of general education studies would pose some very serious problems of equivalence, since it would be impossible to standardize course content. The range of capacity and interest within any group of high school seniors, for example, would preclude the kind of uniform teaching which is customary in Germany or in any school system where students are sorted out early, by future occupation or class, and kept apart throughout their school careers. We would have to

find ways to adapt course materials for different groups without destroying the basic unity of content and approach. But these difficulties do not lessen the necessity to extend the area of shared knowledge, or to strengthen the moral ties among men and to confirm their democratic allegiances. These questions, rather, should be added to our list of challenging tasks.

Of the four propositions listed above as a program for working toward a positive democratic education, three are related directly, though not exclusively, to the curriculum. The first states, as a matter of principle, that no educational program may narrow its objectives to exclude preparation for citizenship. The second takes the position that citizenship must be taught explicitly,—that every student must know of democratic processes, values, and ethical aims, and must understand the forces that threaten democracy. The third calls for a minimum general education so that the student can relate value choices to social consequences.

The fourth proposition, however—that the student must feel himself a part of his society—cannot be implemented to any large degree in the curriculum. Integration, as such, cannot be taught; each person must achieve it privately, in a complicated meshing of emotions, personality, and mind with numerous stimuli. Not the student as a student, but only the total individual, can feel himself a part of society. If, therefore, it is a part of the schools' task to promote the student's positive identification with democratic patterns of life, the schools must also influence the student as a physical, social, psychological, and moral being.

The total student is involved, of course, in any stimulating class; some-

thing he learns may touch his moral sense profoundly or excite his imagination. His entire life may take direction from contact with a new point of view or idea. But to be on easy terms with the larger society, a student must transcend the formal environment of the classroom. He must become capable of independent thought and critical judgment, of choosing moral ends and selecting appropriate means, of evaluating alternatives correctly, of working effectively with others—he must, in short, learn to direct his life as a mature and independent human being.

If the work in the classroom has been done well, he will be equipped to earn his living, and will have a value system to live by. But it is primarily outside the classroom that these other capacities are acquired. Like the intellectual skills, these too must be trained; but the training, instead of being concentrated into small doses offered during scheduled class hours (which account for only about 15 hours of the average college student's week), must permeate the student's total environment. As part of his school life, the student must be given the right to exert some control over school matters; to assume suitable responsibilities and be held accountable for his actions; to make mistakes if need be, in the process of developing his capacities; to choose freely among clubs, activities, and hobbies. Dr. James B. Conant once said that "The most important single factor in a modern liberal education is education which students receive from one another." For this reason, he noted that the student union, being the focus of all student activities, must be regarded as the most important instructional laboratory on the campus—and it might be added that well-administered student residence halls may

equally be characterized as important educational facilities.

It must be a part of educational policy to create this total environment wherein students can practice for maturity—wherein they can help educate one another. If unity is provided by the democratic content and procedure of instruction and in extracurricular activities, the utmost diversity is needed in areas of instruction and in extracurricular activities. Only the combination of unity and diversity will meet the needs of the larger society; and only within such a total environment can the student become a well-balanced individual, capable of both specialized work and democratic citizenship, able to evaluate the new because he is firmly committed to the underlying permanence of values.

As school dean or counselor, each of you has an important part to play in helping to create and maintain this favorable total environment in your own institution. You have some special problems, too, because the particular students whom you guide and counsel are women, who will be required during their lives to make certain choices and adjustments not expected of men. It seems to me that an education for democratic citizenship, as I have described it here in general terms and very briefly, would be at least equally important for the woman as for the man student. It would prepare her to undertake civic and community responsibilities capably; and it would give her inner resources and perspective which should prove helpful in counteracting some of the day-to-day irritations which at times seem to obscure the rewarding aspects of family life for all but the most dedicated of wives and mothers (and even, no doubt, for the dedicated, if they would admit it!) Moreover, it would help her keep interested in the larger

world, and would encourage her to go on learning, so that when the time arrives that her family no longer needs her full attention she can resume her special interests if she wishes, or perhaps even develop a new specialty. As you all know, many writers on women's education stress the difficulties created in a woman's life today by changes at two points—the first, when her family begins to demand all her time, and the second, when her maturing family ceases to demand all her time. The adjustment at both these points, and perhaps especially at the second point, may be extremely difficult for her. I believe that a good general education, in a favorable total educational environment as I have characterized it briefly above, can do much to ease the transition at both points. I believe that a woman who receives such an education can be a hap-

pier person and a more useful member of society because of it.

Free society, if it is to remain free, requires well-rounded citizens—both men and women—who are willing, qualified, and accustomed to make their own choices. For liberty is the right to choose—to face alternatives, to select among them wisely and confidently, and to be willing to live with the results of the choices. If the educational system is to help produce citizens capable of exercising and safeguarding such liberty, it must provide the kind of environment which I have sketched here for you—an environment full of alternative opportunities, of opportunities to make independent decisions. Only in this way can our system of education make its greatest contribution to a free, responsible, and satisfying society.

SOME CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Reviewed by PAUL ZANKOWICH, Teacher

East Meadow, N. Y., Public Schools

THE YOUNG TRAVELER IN SOUTH AMERICA. By Margaret Faraday. N. Y. Dutton. 1957. \$3.50.

Here is a story that will open the door to a warm appreciation and understanding of our South American neighbors. Two youngsters go to join their parents in Chile. They land in Rio and explore much of the surrounding country. Later they journey through many of the Latin American countries. Excellent collateral reading for youngsters who are studying South America.

TOM PITTMAN, USAF. By Rutherford Montgomery. N. Y. Duell, Sloane and Pearce. 1957. \$3.00.

Tom Pittman enlisted in the Air Force as a private and worked his way up to the rank of captain. He became one of the Air Force's "four-headed monsters;" a pilot, a navigator, a bombardier, and a radar man. The story of this stubborn Scotch-Irish lad will appeal to all boys. Incidentally, the book gives an excellent picture of the United States Air Force.

YOUR WONDERFUL WORLD OF SCIENCE. By Mac and Ira Freeman. Illustrated by Rene Martin. N. Y. Random House. 1957. \$1.95.

This very easy-to-read book will tell youngsters in the middle elementary grades much about the earth, the sun, and the weather. Such topics as rocks, air, water, heat and cold are also covered. A simple, yet sound, introduction to the physical world.

THERE'S ADVENTURE IN ATOMIC ENERGY. By Julian May. Chicago. Popular Mechanics Press. 1957. \$2.50

Here is another in the Popular Mechanics Career Book series. These books provide excellent reading for secondary school youngsters who are thinking ahead to the day when they will select and prepare for a career. In this volume, Randy and Sam Morrow find adventure, excitement, and career opportunities experimenting with atomic energy. The volume is especially informative and descriptive of a field that is bound to attract more and more of our young people with scientific interests.

*The Nature of Mental Illness: Diversity of Psychiatric Opinion**

By FREDERICK H. LUND and HARRY J. GLOSSER

Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

THAT PROFESSIONAL opinion is divided on basic issues in the field of mental and personality disorders is apparent from a recent survey designed to tap the views of practicing psychiatrists and clinical psychologists. The present report is a summary of the essential findings of this survey.

Much of the disunity and diversity of opinion stems from still lingering Freudian concepts and the outmoded dualism of mind and body as distinct spheres of action. The psychodynamics of Freud with its emphasis on the interplay of contending psychic forces as the source of most mental disease is especially deplored by leaders in the field (Cameron, Selye).

On the same grounds exception is taken to the old dichotomies of "functional" and "organic" as applied to mental disorders (Cobb). Objection is made to the "clinical jargon" by which "functional" becomes synonymous with psychogenic—as if functions could occur without structural change—as if mental and behavior symptoms were not at all times both functional and organic.

Briefly, the division seems to be between the adherents of Freudian psychodynamics—which includes most of them—and those who seek a more unified organismic account. The latter, while not discounting the modifying in-

fluence of experience (psychogenic factors) call attention to the frequency with which mental disturbances are symptomatic of biochemical disturbances.

Terhune, Yale professor of Psychiatry, in his appeal for a more scientific approach finds "the conclusion inescapable that all mental disorder . . . is the result of a disturbance in normal physiology, the whole doubtless influenced . . . by disturbing environmental factors" (54).

Hoagland, of the Worcester Foundation of Experimental Biology, puts it this way: "Mental disease as a form of behavior must ultimately be comprehensible in terms of its concomitant molecular physiology. A behaving disembodied psyche is a meaningless concept." (18)

The Problem

With the above conditions in mind the present study was undertaken in the hope that it might provide at least partial answers to the following:

1. How diverse are the views on mental pathology as described and delineated in textbooks and scientific journals dealing with the nature, cause and treatment of such pathology?
2. Does such diversity include any elements of contradiction or in-

*A more complete account of this study is found in a dissertation in the Temple University Library by Harry J. Glosser, entitled, "Variability of Professional and Student Opinion in the Field of Mental and Personality Disorders."

(This is the second of a series of articles by Dr. Frederick H. Lund. His article on "Bio-dynamics vs. Freudian Psychodynamics" which appeared in the September 1957 issue of *EDUCATION* has caused wide-spread favorable comment among psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, and educators. Dr. Lund's point of view, which he has developed through many years of research and study, offers many significant implications for understanding the needs of children in both classrooms and psycho-educational clinics.—Editor)

- compatibility from the standpoint of diagnosis and treatment?
3. Is there any large-scale adherence to the theory and methodology of Freud?
 4. Is present thinking about mental and personality disorders more in keeping with psychological dualism or with the concept of the individual as a biological unit?
 5. How wide a berth is being given to Freudian emphasis on the psychodynamics of sex?
 6. Are emotional experiences of infancy and early childhood still held to be basic to many personality disorders of adult life?
 7. Is there a tendency to accept simultaneously the psychodynamics of Freud and the physiopsychic relations presupposed in personality disorders having their origin in disturbances of homeostasis and the stress response system?
 8. Is the use of shock therapy generally accepted?
 9. To what extent are the views of psychologists and psychiatrists at variance?

The Procedure

Various procedures were considered for exploring the questions raised in this study. After due consideration of all the factors involved, it was decided to utilize the questionnaire technique. The general methodology employed was as follows: First, a large number of statements covering the nature, cause, and treatment of mental and personality disturbances were collected from scientific and well-sponsored sources. From these statements, one hundred items were selected, grouped according to content, and identified as, "An Inventory

of Attitudes and Opinions in the Field of Mental and Personality Disorders." This inventory was then administered to a fairly representative group of psychiatrists and psychologists.

The inventory used in the present study appears at the close of this article. In the column on the left the percentages appearing below the "Yes", "No" and "?" represent the distribution of responses to each item by the psychiatrists.

It will be noted that some of the statements appearing in the inventory contain more than one idea. This was all but unavoidable since it seemed desirable, in an opinion survey of this type, to retain the statements in their original form, or in the form in which they appeared in the original source. Moreover, the respondent had the alternative of encircling the "?" in the event he was unable to agree or disagree with a statement in its entirety.

The present report covers the returns from 150 psychiatrists and clinical psychologists. The 75 participating psychiatrists were virtually all employed in institutions. The cooperation of institutions was sought only where we were assured of full participation by members of the psychiatric staff.

Findings

The most important findings based on the inventory may be listed as follows:

1. On the significance of early childhood experiences in relation to personality disorders (Items 1 to 9).
 - a. Psychiatrists represented in this study are generally agreed that mental illness and maladjustments of later life are traceable in many instances to

- experiences of infancy and early childhood.
- b. On the other hand they largely oppose or question the view (1) that emotional states in infancy and early childhood are typically physiogenic in nature (i.e., due to physical feelings and sensations) and (2) that psychiatric disorders of this period are physiopsychic in nature.
 - c. There is also general opposition to the view that language skills and inner-speech (absent in early years) have anything to do with the shifting nature and absence of recall of early emotional experiences.
 - d. As to the personality effects of self-demand feeding vs. regulated feeding opinion is divided.
2. On the physiologic and biological approach (Items 12, 13, 14, 18, 20, 21, 23, 27, 31).
 - a. Participating psychiatrists are divided (half agreeing, half opposing or questioning) the following concepts:
 - (1) Mental disorders illustrate the same pathological principles as other diseases.
 - (2) Every psychic sequence presupposes a coincident physiological sequence.
 - (3) There is evidence of underlying physiological disorders in most mental diseases.
 - (4) Functional disorders are without physical counterparts.
 - (5) The organism possesses a certain amount of "adaptation energy" which may be depleted through stress, leading to increased susceptibility to future stress.
 - b. Nine out of ten oppose or question the view (1) that disturbed physiology is basic to most mental disease, (2) that explanatory concepts of psychic phenomena must ultimately be found in basic sciences of physiology and neurology.
 3. On Freudian and psychoanalytic concepts (Items 32, 33, 42, 44, 67, 68, 69, 70, 75, 76, 80, 82, 83, 86).
 - a. About the same number of psychiatrists accept as reject or question the following:
 - (1) Paranoia is a defense system against unconscious homosexuality.
 - (2) Anxiety neuroses arise from the repression of hostility and sexual libido, primarily in childhood.
 - (3) An electra complex may be the underlying cause of enuresis in girls.
 - (4) A son's desire for his mother leads him to hate his father (Oedipus complex) and everyone to whom he transfers that hatred.
 - (5) The girl's love for her father is mixed with envy because the father possesses a penis which she does not.
 - b. The majority of psychiatrists (55-82%) accept the following:
 - (1) The psychotic seeks infantile pleasures—often undisguised narcissistic, autoerotic, symbolic.

- (2) In many instances enuresis is a form of social aggression.
 - (3) In psychosexual development the anal stage is rather well defined and early identified.
 - c. While the majority oppose (36-59%), a minority still accepts (13-36%) the following:
 - (1) Nail-biting is a particular form of unconscious masturbation.
 - (2) Stuttering occurs in individuals whose libido has become fixed at the oral erotic stage of development.
 - (3) Every thirst for knowledge is a "desexualized form of sexual curiosity.
 - (4) Obesity develops as a defense and a displacement of primitive oral cannibalism.
 - (5) Hysteria is the result of sexual experiences which have been incompletely repressed into the unconscious.
 - (6) Neuroses can be traced back to sexual conflicts of infancy.
4. On schizophrenia (Items 19, 51, 52, 53, 57, 58, 59, 60).
 - a. The majority agree:
 - (1) That schizophrenic psychoses represent a regression to the narcissistic stage of development.
 - (2) That, in schizophrenic patients, stupor may be regarded as a security operation designed to immobilize anxiety.
 - (3) That the schizoid personality shows pronounced defects in the repression of infantile fantasies.
 - b. The majority reject the view:
 - (1) That genetic or constitutional factors play a vital part in the development of schizophrenia.
 - (2) That physiological disturbances are primary factors in schizophrenia.
 - c. However, eighty per cent believe that both psychogenic and organic factors may be involved.
 - d. Eighty to ninety per cent reject or question the view that physiological disturbances—endocrine, circulatory or metabolic—are primary factors in schizophrenia.
 5. On manic-depressive psychoses (Items 62, 63).
 - a. In this case, opinion is divided as to the relative importance of psychic and physical factors. Equal numbers accepting and rejecting the following:
 - (1) Defective homeostasis is basic to the manic-depressive psychoses.
 - (2) Manic-depressive psychoses are of psychogenic origin and all physiological disturbances are but the consequences of mental disturbances.
 6. On training and discipline (Items 35, 37, 38).
 - a. Opinion is divided on the importance of training, self-discipline and frustration tolerance in the development of neuroses.
 7. On shock treatment (Items 96, 97).

- a. Opinion is divided as to whether the beneficial effects in this case are due primarily to factors operating at the mental level or at the physiological level.
8. On genetic and constitutional factors (Items 19, 60).
 - a. Fully three-fourths of the psychiatrists oppose or question (1) the view that inheritance or constitution play a vital part in the development of most mental illness, (2) the view that family inheritance plays a part in the development of schizophrasia.
9. Psychiatric vs. psychological opinion.
 - a. Virtual unanimity of opinion exists on eighty-one per cent of the items.
 - b. Statistically significant differences of opinion are expressed on the following items, with clinical psychologists showing a higher percentage of acceptance than psychiatrists:
 - (1) Prolonged worry about possible events is made possible only through the language medium (inner speech) (Item 8).
 - (2) Defective homeostasis is basic to the manic-depressive psychoses (Item 62).
 - (3) Manic-depressive psychosis is in the main a disturbance related to ambition and the striving for personal prestige (Item 64).
 - (4) At least some forms of adult homosexuality may be accounted for by a gene-controlled disarrangement in the balance between male and female maturation tendencies (Item 78).
- (5) Shock therapy, as now practiced, activates defense mechanisms at the cost of considerable and unnecessary incidental damage (Item 99).
- c. Statistically significant differences of opinion are expressed on the following items, with clinical psychologists showing a greater tendency to oppose or question the items:
 - (1) There is as yet no evidence that underlying physiological disturbances exist in the case of most mental disorders (Item 14).
 - (2) The collective unconscious contains the wisdom of the ages lying dormant in the brain (Item 25).
 - (3) Manic-depressive psychoses are of psychogenic origin and all physiological disturbances are but the consequences of existing mental disturbances (Item 63).
 - (4) A son's desire for his mother leads him to hate his father and every one to whom he transfers this hatred (Oedipus complex) (Item 76).
 - (5) Therapy cannot exist without direction; therefore, the nondirective method is not really therapy (Item 91).

Conclusions

The following general statements or conclusions are based on the above and other findings of the present study.

1. Psychiatric opinion represented in this survey leans more strongly toward psychogenic than phys-

- iogenic concepts of mental and personality disorders.
2. The participating psychiatrists generally oppose physiological, biological, and biochemical accounts.
 3. A favorable attitude is shown toward the conflict dramas and the psychodynamics of Freudian and psycho-analytic theory, with partial or general acceptance shown for the following:
 - a. The disturbing effects of Oedipus and Electra complexes.
 - b. Regression phenomena among the mentally disturbed exhibited in narcissistic, autoerotic and symbolic behavior.
 - c. Regression expressed in accordant with accepted (Freudian) psycho-sexual stages in development—oral, anal, homosexual.
 - d. Foundations of many disorders laid in the early years of life.
 - e. Lack of contact with the environment, including delusional systems, represents a security operation—an escape or voluntary withdrawal from reality.
 4. The opinions of clinical psychologists represented in this study are in general agreement with the opinions or attitudes expressed by the psychiatrists.
 5. As compared with the practicing psychiatrists, the *Clinical psychologists* are:
 - a. More inclined to accept the existence of underlying physiological disturbances in most mental disorders, including the view that disturbances in homeostasis and inadequacies of the stress-response system are basic to some of the major psychoses.
 - b. More inclined to oppose Freudian and psychodynamic concepts, including infantile sexuality, Oedipus complexes and the view that psychiatric disorders are actually repressive in nature, serving to protect the individual from realities too difficult to bear.
 - c. Less opposed to the view that the language medium and inner speech (absent during infancy) are basic to worry, projection, and mental rehearsal.
 - d. More inclined to accept hereditary influences in the susceptibility of the individual to mental and personality disorders.
 6. On the basis of the above findings the practicing psychiatrists seem unprepared, in the main, to accept the following views* expressed recently by leading investigators.
 - a. Psychological phenomena occur only as a result of physical processes and basic biochemical reactions of the nervous system (Terhune, 54).
 - b. Psychiatric medicine must find its answers in the physiology and pathology of the human body and the influences exerted upon it by the environment (Terhune, 54).
 - c. Recent physiological studies show that many of the diseases assumed to be functional or of psychogenic origin including the schizo-

*The statements listed here are variations of those appearing in the inventory.

- phrenic are characterized by disturbed body chemistry (Eaton 12).
- d. Psychiatric disorders in childhood are fundamentally psychosomatic in nature (Terhune, 54).
 - e. The old dichotomies of "mental and physical," "functional and organic" are wrong and misleading since there can be no function without an organ (Cobb, 9).
 - f. Studies dealing with the incidents of schizophrenia in particular lines of descent call attention to the importance of hereditary factors (Kallmann 25, 26, 27).
 - g. Susceptibility to psychic stress and to mental disease varies with the adequacy of body defenses and the adaptation processes associated with pituitary and adrenal cortex secretions (Selye 48, 49, 50).

AN INVENTORY OF ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS IN THE FIELD OF MENTAL AND PERSONALITY DISORDERS DIRECTIONS

Below are a number of statements drawn from current texts and references dealing with mental and personality disorders. Differences in background and orientation are reflected in many of these statements. Some of them are clearly incompatible.

It is requested that you draw a circle around one of the designations—YES—NO—?—appearing before each statement, thus indicating, in each case, whether you accept, reject or question the content of the statement.

No identification of yourself or your institution should be made on the inventory. Our interests are quite impersonal and no reference will be made in any written or published material relating to this study by which the participating individuals or institutions can be identified.

STATEMENTS

- | | | | | |
|----|------|------|------|---|
| 1. | Yes | No | ? | The origin of many of our more serious personality problems is to be found in the early years of life. (22) |
| | 97.3 | 2.6 | 0 | |
| 2. | Yes | No | ? | Psychiatric disorders of childhood are fundamentally psychosomatic in nature. (54) |
| | 33.3 | 38.6 | 28 | |
| 3. | Yes | No | ? | A patient will understand his present difficulties when he recognizes their connection with infantile experiences. (20) |
| | 30.6 | 33.3 | 36 | |
| 4. | Yes | No | ? | Since the emotional experiences of infancy and early childhood are shallow and transitory, they can have little to do with personality disorders of later life. (32) |
| | 5.3 | 93.3 | 1.3 | |
| 5. | Yes | No | ? | When emotional states in infancy and early childhood are sustained, they are typically physiogenic in nature. (54) |
| | 9.3 | 62.6 | 28 | |
| 6. | Yes | No | ? | Self-demand feeding in which nursing always rewards the child's crying is better calculated to produce a confident and unneurotic personality than is calculated time feeding. (39) |
| | 57.3 | 16 | 26.6 | |
| 7. | Yes | No | ? | Self-regulated feedings without limitation in nursing time will not eliminate thumb-sucking. (57) |
| | 61.3 | 12 | 26.6 | |
| 8. | Yes | No | ? | Prolonged worry about possible events is made possible only through the language medium (inner speech). (32) |
| | 26.6 | 40 | 33.3 | |
| 9. | Yes | No | ? | In children, sustained emotional states (socially induced) are impossible until fairly adequate language habits (allowing for mental rehearsal) have been developed. (32) |
| | 20 | 70.6 | 9.3 | |

- | | | | | |
|-----|------|------|------|---|
| 10. | Yes | No | ? | If an individual could not think symbolically, he could not become ill psychologically. (42) |
| | 24 | 49.3 | 26.6 | |
| 11. | Yes | No | ? | The organic and psychological approaches in psychiatry are complementary, each providing a much-needed check against the over-enthusiastic claims of the other. (54) |
| | 80 | 5.3 | 14.6 | |
| 12. | Yes | No | ? | Mental disorders illustrate the same pathological principles as other diseases, are produced in the same way, and must be investigated in the same spirit of objective research. (54) |
| | 48 | 22.6 | 29.3 | |
| 13. | Yes | No | ? | In dealing with a psychological sequence, it is unnecessary to introduce or presuppose a coincident physiological sequence. (45) |
| | 40 | 44 | 16 | |
| 14. | Yes | No | ? | There is as yet no evidence that underlying physiological disturbances exist in the case of most mental disorders. (37) |
| | 50.6 | 28 | 21.3 | |
| 15. | Yes | No | ? | The neuroses and the psychoses arise primarily from frustrations or failure to affect an appropriate adjustment in the interplay of psychological and social forces. (37) |
| | 74.6 | 2.6 | 22.6 | |
| 16. | Yes | No | ? | All functional maladjustments are essentially alike in their basic etiology. (40) |
| | 30.6 | 46.6 | 22.6 | |
| 17. | Yes | No | ? | Emotional maladjustments are as susceptible of scientific study as are physical disorders. (37) |
| | 66.6 | 13.3 | 20 | |
| 18. | Yes | No | ? | While physical disease involves primarily disturbances of the physiological and chemical processes, mental disease (of the functional type) involves psychological and non-physical factors. (41) |
| | 41.3 | 37.3 | 21.3 | |
| 19. | Yes | No | ? | Inheritance and constitution play a vital part in the development of most forms of mental illness. (54) |
| | 25.3 | 40 | 34.6 | |
| 20. | Yes | No | ? | The only explanatory concepts for psychology are those of the more basic biological sciences of physiology and neurology. (33) |
| | 6.6 | 78.6 | 14.6 | |
| 21. | Yes | No | ? | The large majority of mental illnesses develop from and by means of disturbed physiology. (24) |
| | 5.3 | 74.6 | 20 | |
| 22. | Yes | No | ? | Emotional and environmental factors are not the primary factors in the development either of schizophrenia or of manic-depressive psychoses. (54) |
| | 17.3 | 58.6 | 24 | |
| 23. | Yes | No | ? | The view that so-called functional disorders occur in the absence of physical counterparts is not founded in fact. (9) |
| | 41.3 | 30.6 | 28 | |
| 24. | Yes | No | ? | The psychical apparatus may be divided into three parts or levels: the conscious, the pre-conscious, and the unconscious. (57) |
| | 74.6 | 4 | 21.3 | |
| 25. | Yes | No | ? | The collective unconscious contains the wisdom of the ages lying dormant in the brain. (4) |
| | 25.3 | 33.3 | 41.3 | |
| 26. | Yes | No | ? | Since the concept of the "unconscious" is at best inferential rather than phenomenological, it belongs in the sphere of allegory or mythology rather than in the sphere of science. (32) |
| | 8 | 73.3 | 18.6 | |
| 27. | Yes | No | ? | The "mind" is merely one aspect—the psychological aspect—of biological functioning of the organism. (37) |
| | 85.3 | 6.6 | 8 | |
| 28. | Yes | No | ? | There is a definite relationship between the kind of person and the type of disorder he develops if he becomes mentally ill. (37) |
| | 64 | 8 | 28 | |
| 29. | Yes | No | ? | Much behavior pathology results from fixations at particular life periods, and from the inadequate resolution of |
| | 86.6 | 2.6 | 10.6 | |

				conflicts which occur inevitably in the course of normal maturation. (6)
30. Yes	No	?		Failure to develop in the individual a reasonable degree of frustration tolerance is often an underlying factor in the development of mental and personality disorders. (6)
90.6	1.3	8		An organism possesses a certain amount of "adaptation energy" for meeting all dangerous or painful situations, and when it is employed to combat one type of attack, less is available to resist others. (22)
31. Yes	No	?		The psychotic seeks infantile pleasure of a rudimentary, often undisguised type, such as narcissistic, autoerotic, symbolic, objectless pleasure. (1)
52	14.6	33.3		Neurosis can be traced back to the sexual conflicts of infancy. (38)
32. Yes	No	?		The symptoms of neurotic illness are substitutes for the satisfaction of sexual desires which have been repressed. (38)
82.6	4	13.3		Sexual problems of adjustment are not causes but effects of neurotic character structure. (20)
33. Yes	No	?		All neuroses stem from severe birth anxiety, and all later anxiety can be interpreted in terms of birth anxiety. (4)
36	22.6	41.3		Low frustration tolerance and a tendency to overreact to emotional stimuli are characteristic symptoms of the neurotic personality. (32)
34. Yes	No	?		Inadequacies of discipline and self-restraint, coupled with an inadequate habit-system, are characteristic of the neurotic. (32)
38.6	26.6	34.6		Instability and low dynamism are typical weaknesses in the personality structure of the neurasthenic. (32)
35. Yes	No	?		Since the desire for superiority is the universal goal, a neurosis may be regarded as a device for dominating. (43)
53.3	9.3	37.3		War neurosis is based on a conflict between love and hatred of one's country. (14)
36. Yes	No	?		Hysteria is the result of sexual experiences which have been incompletely repressed into the unconscious. (56)
4	74.6	21.3		Conversion symptoms are a symbolic expression of emotionally charged unconscious psychological content. (14)
37. Yes	No	?		Anxiety neuroses arises from the repression of hostility and sexual libido, primarily in childhood. (8)
69.3	9.3	21.3		Neurasthenia may be ascribed to an endocrine condition produced by sexual overactivity. (8)
38. Yes	No	?		Psychasthenia is due to fixations over toilet training, with sadism (and masochism) and hostility to parents. (8)
40	28	32		Obsessional neuroses should be viewed as regressions to the anal-sadistic state. (20)
39. Yes	No	?		Climacteric depression is a form of hysteria induced by a woman's loss of the capacity to compensate for her lack of a penis. (14)
52	13.3	34.6		Suicide may be viewed as a grand gesture, and so the inferior person commits suicide in order to prove his superiority. (43)
40. Yes	No	?		Schizophrenia results from any form of isolation which cuts the person off from intimate social relationships for an extended period of time. (44)
10.6	49.3	40		
41. Yes	No	?		
8	84	8		
42. Yes	No	?		
25.3	44	30.6		
43. Yes	No	?		
93.3	0	6.6		
44. Yes	No	?		
54.6	12	33.3		
45. Yes	No	?		
0	89.3	10.6		
46. Yes	No	?		
17.3	48	34.6		
47. Yes	No	?		
33.3	22.6	44		
48. Yes	No	?		
6.6	73.3	20		
49. Yes	No	?		
12	57.3	30.6		
50. Yes	No	?		
12	72	16		

- | | | | | |
|-----|------|------|------|---|
| 51. | Yes | No | ? | Schizophrenia is a manifestation of disordered biology, the chief functional deviations being endocrine, circulatory or metabolic. (28) |
| | 6.6 | 57.3 | 36 | |
| 52. | Yes | No | ? | The schizophrenic's lowered level of physiological functioning is evidence of a constitutional defect of vitality which predisposes him to schizophrenic reactions when placed under excessive stress. (10) |
| | 17.3 | 36 | 46.6 | |
| 53. | Yes | No | ? | Schizophrenia is not a disease entity but a syndrome, or a reaction type, in which either psychogenic or organic factors may predominate. (10) |
| | 81.3 | 9.3 | 9.3 | |
| 54. | Yes | No | ? | The schizophrenic's chief difficulty is the actual or threatened collapse of self-respect. (28) |
| | 22.6 | 41.3 | 36 | |
| 55. | Yes | No | ? | Schizophrenia results from the schizophrenic's incapacity to solve the problems of bisexuality in harmony with reality. (14) |
| | 16 | 44 | 40 | |
| 56. | Yes | No | ? | The schizophrenic is a person who never felt accepted from earliest infancy and everything he has tried to learn and do has, in consequence, lacked meaning and satisfaction. (13) |
| | 37.3 | 25.3 | 37.3 | |
| 57. | Yes | No | ? | Schizophrenic psychoses may be considered a regression to the narcissistic stage of development. (20) |
| | 54.6 | 14.6 | 30.6 | |
| 58. | Yes | No | ? | A schizoid personality shows pronounced defects in the repression of infantile fantasies and other modes of thinking which are essential to normal adjustment. (29) |
| | 57.3 | 12 | 30.6 | |
| 59. | Yes | No | ? | In schizophrenic patients, stupor may be regarded as a security operation designed to immobilize anxiety. (14) |
| | 80 | 4 | 16 | |
| 60. | Yes | No | ? | An individual's average expectancy of becoming schizophrenic varies directly with the closeness of his blood relationship to a schizophrenic patient. (10) |
| | 18.6 | 54.6 | 26.6 | |
| 61. | Yes | No | ? | Defective homeostasis—somatic and psychic—is characteristic of schizophrenia. (35) |
| | 57.3 | 17.3 | 25.3 | |
| 62. | Yes | No | ? | Defective homeostasis is basic to the manic-depressive psychosis. (12) |
| | 33.3 | 29.3 | 37.3 | |
| 63. | Yes | No | ? | Manic-depressive psychoses are of psychogenic origin and all physiological disturbances are but the consequences of existing mental disturbances. (28) |
| | 29.3 | 29.3 | 41.3 | |
| 64. | Yes | No | ? | Manic-depressive psychosis is in the main a disturbance related to ambition and the striving for personal prestige. (55) |
| | 18.6 | 41.3 | 40 | |
| 65. | Yes | No | ? | Theoretically every disease may be psychosomatic, since emotional factors influence all body processes through nervous and humoral pathways. (14) |
| | 76 | 16 | 8 | |
| 66. | Yes | No | ? | Attacks of asthma are correlated with an unconscious suppressed impulse to cry for mother's help. (2) |
| | 36 | 18.6 | 45.3 | |
| 67. | Yes | No | ? | Obesity develops as a defense and a displacement of a primitive oral cannibalism. (14) |
| | 20 | 36 | 44 | |
| 68. | Yes | No | ? | In many instances enuresis may be seen to be a form of social aggression. (32) |
| | 74.6 | 9.3 | 16 | |
| 69. | Yes | No | ? | In dealing with enuresis in girls, it is important to bear in mind that an electra complex may be the underlying factor in its development. (32) |
| | 37.6 | 16 | 46.6 | |
| 70. | Yes | No | ? | Paranoia is a defense system against unconscious homosexuality. (14) |
| | 48 | 24 | 28 | |
| 71. | Yes | No | ? | The paranoid personality is dominated by his intuitive awareness of the primitive hostility of others, but is de- |
| | 68 | 8 | 24 | |

72. Yes No ?
9.3 61.3 29.3
73. Yes No ?
24 40 36
74. Yes No ?
57.3 20 22.6
75. Yes No ?
25.3 33.3 41.3
76. Yes No ?
33.3 25.3 41.3
77. Yes No ?
72 5.3 22.6
78. Yes No ?
30.6 34.6 34.6
79. Yes No ?
18.6 52 29.3
80. Yes No ?
14.6 58.6 26.6
81. Yes No ?
56 22.6 21.3
82. Yes No ?
17.3 38.6 44
83. Yes No ?
13.3 40 46.6
84. Yes No ?
4 78.6 17.3
85. Yes No ?
18.6 44 37.3
86. Yes No ?
54.6 17.3 28
87. Yes No ?
90.6 1.3 8
88. Yes No ?
38.6 30.6 30.6
89. Yes No ?
44 41.3 14.6
90. Yes No ?
13.3 73.3 13.3
91. Yes No ?
32 44 24
92. Yes No ?
10.6 76 13.3
- fective in his common sense judgment of the real intentions of others. (29)
Epilepsy is a flight into unconsciousness from some unpleasant emotional experience. (56)
Criminality is a form of psychopathology to which men are especially subject as seen from the much higher incidence of crime among men than among women. (32)
Criminality is basically a psychic disease which, in most instances, calls for psychiatric treatment. (14)
The girl's love for her father is mixed with envy because the father possesses a penis which she does not have. (17)
A son's desire for his mother leads him to hate his father and every one to whom he transfers this hatred. (Oedipus complex). (43)
Every person is constitutionally bisexual, that is, he inherits the tendencies of the opposite sex as well as those of his own sex. (17)
At least some forms of adult homosexuality may be accounted for by a gene-controlled disarrangement in the balance between male and female maturation tendencies. (53)
The sublimation of sexuality is more likely to do harm than good to a person. (67)
Every thirst for knowledge is a "desexualized" form of sexual curiosity. (20)
Sexuality manifests itself quite clearly immediately after birth, chiefly in the pleasure-giving functions of the erogenous zones of the body. (38)
Nail-biting is a particular form of unconscious masturbation activity. (30)
Stuttering occurs in those individuals in whom the libido has become fixed at the oral erotic stage of development. (30)
What woman ultimately wants in intercourse is to be raped and violated; what she wants in mental life is to be humiliated. (20)
The relatively high incidence of frigidity among women is traceable to biochemical as well as to psychological and social factors. (32)
In psychosexual development the anal stage is rather well defined and early identified. (4)
No one therapeutic approach is suitable for all individuals, nor is the success obtained with one approach proof that other approaches might not have been equally successful with the same individual. (6)
In mental disorders, a penetration into the psychical individuality of the patient is demanded, which is scarcely ever necessary in ordinary medical practice. (1)
In the so-called functional disorders, it is not possible to make differential diagnoses on an etiologic basis. (40)
For purposes of therapy, case history techniques and diagnostic testing are unnecessary. (41)
Therapy cannot exist without direction; therefore, the non-directive method is not really therapy. (31)
Psychoanalysis is allegorical mysticism and has been established and practiced without scientific validation. (11)

93. Yes No ? The aim of therapy is to uncover repressions and to replace them by acts of judgment. (51)
40 24 36
94. Yes No ? Psychoanalytic therapy is a process of reconditioning. (1)
46.6 24 29.3
95. Yes No ? The psychoanalytic approach is at best applicable only to certain forms of mental pathology. (37)
69.3 12 18.6
96. Yes No ? In electric shock treatment, the beneficial effect of treatment is greatly reduced if the therapist does not have the cooperation and confidence of the patient. (14)
44 29.3 26.6
97. Yes No ? Beneficial effects of shock treatment at the mental and behavior level are due almost entirely to the effect of such treatment at the structural and physiological level. (48)
33.3 20 46.6
98. Yes No ? Influences operating at the psychic level in connection with shock treatment are chiefly responsible for the beneficial effects of such treatment. (28)
26.6 30.6 42.6
99. Yes No ? Shock therapy, as now practiced, activates defense mechanisms at the cost of considerable and unnecessary incidental damage. (48)
8 45.3 46.6
100. Yes No ? Insulin shock is experienced as death—awakening from it, as a repetition of the development from infancy to the adult self. (14)
13.3 33.3 53.3

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They Can Never See a Rainbow in the Sky

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IT SOUNDS LIKE the title of a popular song, or the last line of a jingle which will reward the winner with some fabulous prize. But it is very far from being either. On the contrary, it is a sober statement of fact that has serious, sometimes even tragic implications for millions of Americans, as well as many millions of people in other parts of the world. For the people to whom this statement applies, there is no pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. In fact, they cannot even see the rainbow, and look as they will to the blue heaven above them, all their looking is in vain.

While young and old with heads held high
See God's canvass in pigments bold,
They stand and gaze, see naught in sky,
And never watch the bow unfold.

These are the color-blind, of whom there are approximately 8,000,000 in the United States. They can never see a rainbow. Those whose defect in color perception is comparatively mild can see some yellow and blue in the sky. Most of them, however, can never appreciate the beauty of a summer sunset. It is not surprising that they stare with incredulity at those who rise so early in the morning for the sole purpose of catching the coming of the dawn, or that they exclaim uncomprehendingly over those who scale the tops of mountains merely to watch the gloriously multi-

colored day sink into the velvet cradle of the star spangled night.

A World of Color

This inability to appreciate the beauties of nature, however, is not the most important element of the problem faced by the color-blind. It is, after all, quite possible to live, and live with enjoyment without aesthetic pleasure of this particular type. Unfortunately, however, in this modern world in which we live color has more than a purely aesthetic meaning. It is significant in many fields and departments of modern living, and those who are unable to identify it are likely to find themselves seriously handicapped on many occasions.

For example, there is the matter of driving an automobile, an occupation by which millions of people earn a living, and a necessary, or even essential skill for millions of others. It is interesting to note, in this connection, that almost all of our public motor vehicles are manned by drivers who, in order to get their jobs, have had to pass numerous tests for possible visual defects, including the defect of color-blindness. But tests for color-blindness are not ordinarily part of the examination given the individual drivers of private cars. Besides, there are millions of drivers who secured their licenses before it became compulsory to pass an eye test. Even to-

day, there are five states that issue licenses without requiring of the individual to pass the simplest kind of an eye test. Thus there are thousands of motorists on our highways at any given moment who are probably seriously endangering their own lives, as well as the lives of others because of color-blindness *of which they are not aware.*

This may come as a somewhat startling statement. Even though you yourself may be blessed with perfect vision in every respect, you have probably been acquainted with experiences of friends or relatives who have been troubled with various ocular defects. You know, therefore, that most of these are detected with comparative ease. If the trouble is poor or reduced visual acuity, the sufferer can readily compare his own ability to see distant objects with that of another person. Failure to identify familiar objects at a distance is readily apparent. Those who have enjoyed normal visual acuity for most of their lives, only to develop some reduction or failure in this respect, are soon conscious of this fact. Their normal experience gives them a basis for comparison with their present state of vision.

None of this, however, is true of color-blindness. It is perfectly possible for one to suffer from this defect without knowing it. Indeed, as most experts know only too well, the color-blind individual is generally unaware that his vision is defective in this respect until it is called to his attention.

Individual Differences

There is a simple explanation for this curious situation. The core of the explanation lies in the psychological nature of the experience of seeing. Because seeing is psychological, and therefore a personal experience, there is no way

for any individual to know how the colors that he is viewing appear to another individual. You interpret a certain color as red whenever you see it. But you can never know or prove that this particular color appears the same to your friend who views it with you. Nor does your own visual experience of color in the past form a basis for comparison with your present perception of color.

This sounds as if the experience of color perception is very complicated, and that is exactly what it is. How are you to know whether your color perception is normal or defective? Why is so much emphasis laid on good color discrimination? And if you are color-blind, or if your color perception is weak, is there anything you can do about it?

Let's begin to answer these questions by trying to understand what makes the problem so complex. The difficulty arises from the fact that all seeing, chromatic and achromatic (in other words, both color vision, and black and white vision), is a mental, or psychological process. It is therefore a personal experience. But, you say, the steps lead to the ultimate identification of the visual image are physical and physiological. This, of course, is true. These steps follow the laws of optics, which are known to physicists, eye specialists, photographers and many other professional and scientific groups. These laws have to do with the movement of light rays, the way in which they focus on the retinae of the eyes, and the propagation of the resultant images along the optic nerves to the visual centers of the brain. The laws of optics, however, do not explain what transforms these electrical stimuli into a visual concept. That part of the process is still cloaked in mystery.

We do know, of course, that although the eyes play the most important role

in the act of seeing, the perception and identification of what one sees depend also on clues from other senses. Seeing is a visual experience, but it is the outgrowth of the summation of stimuli from all of the senses. The identification of an object is made possible only because of some previous experience with it or with something that resembles it. All of us have received frequent proof of this in the ease with which we can describe familiar objects, and the faltering difficulty that overtakes us when we attempt the description of an object viewed for the first time. We are all familiar, too, with the longing that sweeps over us for touching, smelling, or tasting, in order to get some clue besides the visual indication that will help us to identify the unknown.

When cataracts are removed from the eyes of people who have been blind from birth, they find it difficult at first to identify many common, every day objects which now they are seeing for the first time. Almost without exception, they find it necessary to touch these objects with hands and fingers. There is an incident told of one such occasion. A surgeon asked his patient, following a successful operation for the removal of cataracts, if he could see the toy elephant standing on the desk. The patient replied that he could see it. The doctor then told him to take the toy in his hands. He did so, and an expression of surprise came over his face as he fondled the object with his hands. "Why, it is not an elephant at all!" he exclaimed. "It is a glass milk bottle." And so indeed it was. The patient had seen the object, and he was not stupid. But his visual identification of the bottle was neither accurate nor complete until it was reinforced with the clues given by the sense of touch.

In the case of color, the experience of perception is even more complex, because we cannot touch, smell, taste, or hear color. Thus the visual sensation cannot be augmented by stimuli from other senses. The perception and identification of color is a purely visual experience, and its realization depends not only on refraction of light by the eyes and the projection of retinal images to the visual centers of the brain, but on social and educational development as well. Suppose, for example, that a child were never told that a certain specific color is red, while another one is blue. Would he ever be able, without this specific information, to apply those names to the proper color? Clearly, the naming of colors is a learned skill.

Color-Blind Children

What does the color-blind child actually see? Is it possible that he sees the colors as a child with normal color vision does? No; on this point, color specialists are agreed. Whatever he sees as color, it is not what the child with normal color vision sees. However, the same color specialists are in disagreement as to what the color-blind actually do see.

Nevertheless, something is known of their difficulties. Generally speaking, the color-blind have trouble, not with the whole spectrum, but only with certain parts of it. The long rays which are designated as the red rays may appear much darker to them, or they may not be perceived at all. In place of red, the color-blind may see gray. Green may resemble brown to them, or it may, at times, be confused with red and orange. Blue, on the other hand, is usually confused with purple, while purple may not be perceived at all. This is probably true, for it is a known fact that indi-

viduals with normal color vision do not see the infra-red and ultra-violet rays of the spectrum, although some of these rays are visible to bees and, perhaps, to other living creatures.

Thus the congenital color-blind person grows up in a world where colors are different for him from what they are for others, or else they are absent. He has no basis for comparison, and therefore he cannot know, solely, of his own experience, that his color perception is different from that of other people. For example, he has not been able to see a purple color. Therefore, when he hears people speak of purple, he readily comes to a false conclusion, usually assuming that actually they mean blue. Most color-blind individuals are amazed when they are told that they are color-blind. Every doctor has had frequent experience of having his diagnosis questioned, and its accuracy disputed by the patient concerned.

Tests of Color Vision

For this reason, the use of lantern tests, which is a simple means of examination for color defects and fairly accurate from the point of view of the examiner, is not satisfactory for general practice. Nor is it a practical means of testing for color discrimination in industrial plants. The color-blind submitting to this test is frequently not convinced that his interpretation of a colored light is wrong and the examiner's is right. Time and time again, he will dispute the correctness of the diagnosis.

An equally simple, and much more satisfactory test for color-blindness is that of the pseudo-isochromatic plates. These plates consist of printed circular designs made up of multi-colored dots, large and small. They are so ingeniously arranged that an individual with normal

color perception can perceive one or two digits in the grouping of the dots. To the color-blind, however, the design represents merely a mass of colored dots without shape or form. To convince the color-blind individual that his color vision is faulty, the examiner has only to place a colored filter before the plate, and the digits immediately become obvious to the patient.

It requires only a brief and superficial reflection upon the nature of our life in the world today to be convinced of the fact that color-blindness is a problem of considerable social significance. Consider, for example, the use of color to indicate danger, and the real peril that the color-blind individual may incur as the result of misinterpreting such a signal. Red, which is the generally employed color to indicate danger, may even be perceptible to him in clear weather, but prove most confusing to him at twilight, at night, in a fog, rain, or snowstorm. The Maryland Optometric Association once conducted visual tests for drivers, in the course of which 14 motorists out of 2000 admitted that they could not distinguish between the red light and the green one when both lights were exposed deliberately at the same time on a traffic signal.

Incidence of Difficulties

The best estimates of the color specialists indicate that one out of every ten men has some difficulty with color perception. It can therefore be readily imagined that there is a waste and spoilage in industry resulting from lack of good color discrimination of surprisingly great proportions. For there is hardly an industry today where color does not play an important role, either in the production process, or office maintenance, or both. The textile industry

alone is probably employing thousands of color-blind workers who are contributing their unsuspected share to the waste and spoilage of material amounting to millions of dollars annually. And how many disastrous slip-ups in office routine are being committed every day by file clerks who unwittingly are confusing blue cards with gray, or mixing up the yellow and the orange cards, or mistaking the green cards for the red ones, or even accountants who mistake red figures for black?

There is only one way of eliminating this problem. That is, by compulsory visual tests which include tests for color-blindness. We are not, of course, suggesting that there is no room in industry or business for the color-blind. Our point is that unless steps are taken to detect the color-blind, they may be put in the wrong sort of job. We mean merely to suggest that once a man has been found to be color-blind, an effort should be made to avoid placing him in a job, the successful performance of which involves the use of color.

It is quite possible to find individuals who have difficulty in identifying colors even in such strategic positions as our police departments. Recently, there was a case in which a traffic officer was responsible for the court dismissal of an individual who had committed a serious violation. The officer testified that the car in question was green. Upon cross examination by the defendant's attorney, he failed to identify a green disk when shown a green and blue disk simultaneously. He thus destroyed the credibility and reliability of his own direct testimony, and the violator got off scot free. Many similar examples could be cited of faulty decisions by men in responsible positions as a direct result of defective color vision.

Follow Up

The problem of what to do with a person who is found to be color-blind is often a serious one. Such an individual may occupy an important executive position, or have an occupational skill that has been acquired through many years of training. Yet, once his color-blindness has been discovered, it may then be quite obvious that his continuation in that position may present danger, both to himself and to others. In such instances, it is sometimes very difficult to know what to do. Sometimes, the mere discovery of his visual defect will put such an individual on his guard, and by making him more cautious, will make him less apt to cause a serious accident. But sometimes the work that he does is of such a nature that his defect makes it impossible for him, even with superhuman effort, to avoid endangering his own or other people's lives. In such cases there is only one solution. The individual must be removed from his position, and given some other task or job that is less taxing for his limited color sense.

Obviously, such painful experience and difficult vocational decisions can be avoided for the oncoming generations if we insist upon the adoption of tests for color-blindness for all of our school children. In this way, those who are discovered to be color-blind can be given vocational guidance and advice at an early age, and thus helped to avoid the choice of a profession where the identification of colors plays an important role.

What To Do?

What possibilities are there for overcoming color-blindness, or at least mitigating its effects? All color experts agree that congenital color-blindness is in-

curable. However, it is generally agreed that many children who are defective in color sense are color-weak rather than congenitally color-blind, and it is believed by some that this may be due to slow maturation. Especially significant is the report of Dr. N. H. Pronko and his associates of the University of Wichita. Their investigation of the color vision of school children in the first, second, and third grades disclosed a gradual decrease in the number of color defectives as they advanced through the grades. In their opinion color vision follows the usual developmental pattern associated with learning and maturation.

One thing, however, can be stated categorically. This is a problem, the magnitude of which is not generally realized. The individuals with normal

color sense have no idea of the extent and frequency of the occurrence of color-blindness. Nor are they appreciative of the psychological stigma that is experienced by the individual who suddenly discovers that his color vision is not normal. In view of these factors, the importance of a nation-wide school program of testing for color-blindness and training in color discrimination can hardly be overstated. Clearly, such a program should be inaugurated at the earliest possible date. The first essential step is to inform as many people as possible of the problem, and to publicize the situation broadly and thoroughly. Once aroused, public opinion will be quick to demand the adoption of a program to deal with the problem effectively.

Dr. Dvorine is the designer of the Dvorine Pseudo-Isochromatic Plates used in testing for color-blindness.

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RAYMOND P. PALMER, Business Manager.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 23rd day of October, 1957.

NATHAN LESTER WHITTEN
(My commission expires Feb. 5, 1960)

Some Facts About Basic Education *in* India

By SHAMSUDDIN
B. A., B. T., M. Ed.,
Dongargaon, Dist. Durg, M. P. India

SOME ONE has said, "Great talents have some admirers, but few friends." When the talented soul in Gandhiji at Shegaon came forward with his novel scheme of Basic Education at the first sight, it took the Public by surprise. Gradually onwards some became his admirers, but only few could become his friends. The first reception and welcome accorded to it was in the form of protests. Gandhiji was asked to explain and elaborate his scheme. "Wardha Educational Conference" and "Zakir Hussain Committee Report" followed and they threw more light on the ideology of Basic Education.

Gandhiji was quite aware of the glaring defects of the present system of education in the country. He knew that the child is given such academic and theoretical knowledge which his brain is not willing to receive. By education he meant an all-round drawing out of the best in the child and man . . . body, mind, and spirit. Literacy is neither a beginning nor an end of education, it is only a means. He was also conscious of the fact that the problem of education in India is the problem of money.

Self-Supporting

In one of the articles in "Harijan" under the caption "The Education Puzzle." he wrote . . . "The cruelest irony of the new reforms lies in the fact that

we are left with nothing but the liquor revenue to fall back upon in order to give education to our children." People were puzzled to think over the problem that our education is to continue on the liquor revenue. We should start drinking if we want to educate our children. To try to solve this puzzle, Gandhiji took the risk of suggesting that education should be SELF-SUPPORTING. He gave a system which is at once inexpensive and also in consonance with the needs of our vast rural population. The fundamental features of the Basic Education system of education are as follows:

The scheme is based on non-violence in the form of removal of exploitation and removal of cultural deterioration. Free and compulsory education for seven years beginning from the age of seven. Mother tongue to be the medium of instruction. Process of education to centre round some form of manual and productive work in the shape of craft. All intellectual training to be given should as far as possible centre round the central handicraft chosen with due regard to the environment of the child. The aim is to bring out the moral, rational and physical capacities of the child through the industry taught.

The Central Advisory Board of Education appointed a committee in the year 1938 under the chairmanship of

Hon. B. G. Kher to scrutinise the new scheme of Basic Education. At its first meeting Dr. Zakir Hussain answered the criticisms put forth against the scheme. He said:—

"The scheme can be self sufficient. The experiment is actually worked out in Wardha and it is seen that besides educating the child, the scheme can yield sufficient monetary return involved in working out the scheme."

"For removing the difficulty about teachers, we can open numerous training centres for the training of teachers."

As for the criticism that the scheme is made for villages, he said that India lives in villages. Our primary concern is rural area. Through them we can gradually approach the urban area. Towns can wait till we improve. As for religious education, Dr. Zakir Hussain said that India had no one state-religion hence there is great practical difficulty of introducing religious education. Moreover, Wardha scheme of Education has equal regard for all religions.

Equal Regard For All

As for co-education Dr. Zakir Hussain said that it is not a compulsory feature of the scheme. As for the theoretical nature of the scheme Zakir Hussain said that a scheme of education which has craft as its centre can never be theoretical. In the whole of the scheme there are two striking features that draw our attention:

That the system of education is woven round a craft, and

That the scheme is self supporting.

Psychologically a child's brain can be active only through work and play. He has special tendency to do and undo, break and mend something or the other. He is too much fond of activity. The child's energy of activity, if not properly

ly directed, will run wild to destructive channels, and will take the form of mischief. His creative energy should be trained and guided instead of being allowed to go waste. This active, energetic and mischievous material of the school of today, which is subject to constant rebuke and lash, will under this Basic system of education enrich the society with their gifts. The child by acquiring the knowledge of the processes and the results, automatically acquires the habit of scientific thinking. In the basic system of education whatever knowledge is acquired becomes a part of his personality. He develops into a practical man of the world. Moreover, at the age of 14 or 15, a child has remarkable capacity of grasping concrete things. His genius for undertaking abstract ideas and generalisations is strictly limited. This is the greatest defect in our present education system. It leads to the crippling of his mind. In fact objects and not words, sense perception nor memory should be the basis of education and this is provided by the new Basic System of education.

Similarly if every boy or girl worked not only as a machine but as an intellectual unit taking interest in the work under expert guidance the corporate labour should be, say, worth one anna per hour. Thus for 26 working days of 4 hours per day, each child will have earned Rs. 6/8/- per month. Our energy and material would be wasted if a child could not produce this much marketable labour. Gandhiji said, "our rural education is to be made self supporting if it is to be made compulsory. Up until now our children's minds are stuffed with all kinds of information without being stimulated or developed. Let us now educate the child through manual

work . . . not as a side activity but as the prime means of intellectual training."

In our education, craft is to be adopted not only as a means of education but also as an end in itself. The child should choose such craft as he may be able to adopt in future. Thus by Basic Education the child learns to produce something making the education self-supporting. To support the school would

be the test of the value of that education.

To conclude this education helps in an all-round drawing out of the best in the child and man. It not only makes a child a good and an efficient citizen but supplies the best type of citizens fitted to society. It makes the students not intellectual giants but humble men of the world leading a pure and serene life.

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Educational Radio *and* Television-- Blessing *or* Blight?

By MARGARET CALHOUN

2922 Park Avenue
Indianapolis, Indiana

EDUCATIONAL radio and television—a blessing or a blight?

That is the dilemma which is facing us today. It is true, the Office of Education has been sponsoring educational radio since 1931. But even today, this medium does not have the widespread use it might in our schools. Although the Office of Education has similarly recognized television as a suitable medium to be used in our schools since 1944, it is even less commonly used.

Radio is a relatively new means of communication, it is true, and television is virtually in the infant stages. But communication itself is very old indeed. For countless centuries men have reproduced events or objects by drawing pictures, and have related happenings through songs, orations and plays. Long before radio, television, or even the telegraph were among the dreams of man, he found countless means of communicating, of sharing ideas and news.

As each new method of communication developed, certain changes in man's way of life resulted. Surely one would recognize the vast significance of the discovery of the telegraph. Where news events were once weeks or months reaching distant parts of the earth, messages could now be relayed across vast continents and even oceans, in minutes. Radio brought about an even greater change. For now man could hear not only *about* events, but could actually

hear history as it was being made. When Edward the Eighth, King of England, abdicated his throne, vast numbers of us were allowed to hear his voice as he renounced his rights to the Kingdom. With the coming of television, we have been given the power to *see* history in the making, as well. For the first time, millions of Americans were given a detailed picture of the manner by which our Presidential candidates are nominated, when the political conventions were televised. Can those of us who heard *and* saw General Dwight D. Eisenhower accept the Republican nomination at Chicago help but feel that we too were there?

Certainly, we can not deny the importance of such a powerful medium of communication. True, there are many programs aired on commercial television and radio of which we do not approve. But we must remember that these media are costly to operate. They are at present operated largely for profit, and it is not our individual privilege to choose what is shown (although it *is* our privilege to choose what is *watched*!) Many of the programs shown are not those we would wish for our children to see. But are there not, at the same time, many valuable programs offered to us?

We must not judge radio and television solely by their "bad" elements. They have too much good to offer.

Some fear educational television be-

cause it may "replace" the direct contact children get with their teachers. Were not some of these same fears felt or expressed when the idea of showing films in the classroom evolved? As the use of educational films became more common and widespread, we began to recognize them as an essential, worthwhile supplement to a good classroom situation. We did not and do not attempt to "teach" from a film as such. It is rather an enriching experience. It's true worth in the classroom is only as great as the skill and understanding of the teacher sharing it with her students.

We would no longer argue that using films in the classroom is unhealthy or worthless. We now are beginning to recognize that this medium, wonderful as it is, however, does have definite limitations. That is, that it is bound by certain limitations of time and space. What the child sees and hears has already happened.

With the introduction of radio into the classroom, we can experience the thrill of hearing important speeches and events as they are actually occurring. Through television, we are given the additional gift of *seeing* what is happening, when it is happening. Surely, this is a medium of communication unparalleled in the history of man!

Should we deny our children the right to see and hear the inauguration of their President, a session of Congress, or a great symphony orchestra, merely because there is a chance that they may also see a "bad" program at some other time? It would seem that it is our job, rather, to educate them in such a manner that they are radio and television "wise", able to pick and choose those programs which are worthwhile and still enjoyable. And what better way to

do this than by using these media in the classroom? We might as well face it, radio and television are here to stay! As with any powerful new agents, we must learn to work with them, not against them.

There was a time when men thought it unwise for the masses to be able to read and write. How many people will now support such a hypothesis? Are we not now facing a similar dilemma as we watch with some awe the influence that television, in particular, is having on our society? Just as there are good and bad books, there are good and bad radio and television programs. That is no reason to condemn them all, to "burn them at the stake."

In addition to being valuable for the "live events" which they can bring into the classroom, radio and television have other merits.

Since radio and television are so popular with our children, will they not sit up and listen to the voice of the same, when introduced into the classroom? What a wonderful source of motivation is here offered to us. Any teacher who has used radio or television in the classroom must have observed the increased interest of the children as they went on to explore a situation introduced by "Miss X" on the radio. There is a danger, of course, that a poor teacher might consider her radio "helper" to be doing the complete job, and not pursue the subject any further. We would question whether or not all jobs were entered into half-heartedly, with the children working at a minimal level in such a situation, however. Perhaps in such a case, the "presence" of "Miss X" in this classroom would be a real blessing, brief and incomplete though her visit might be. (Such a contention is not to lead one to believe that

we might be able to educate our children with inferior teachers, with the help of "master teachers" on radio and television, however! Quite to the contrary, the *proper* use of these programs would require a skilled, sensitive teacher, the kind we all wish our children to have. There is no substitute for a good teacher in the classroom.)

We might next justifiably ask, "But where will we get the teachers to do this work? Won't it require special training in the field of radio and television?"

Many regular classroom teachers who have assisted in presenting such programs, or have made use of them, will no doubt agree that we will find these people by looking into our own classrooms. We are not seeking, after all, merely to entertain our students by the use of radio and television. A learning situation can be a pleasure in itself, if it is well organized and presented in an interesting, challenging manner. The "technicalities" of program production should not be the concern of the classroom teacher. Her chief concern should be the presentation of the lesson so as to capture the attention of her listeners. Is this not exactly what a good teacher does in her daily classroom situation?

To be sure, as those of us who have had the opportunity to work in this field well realize, the teacher would need to sacrifice a certain amount of time to prepare her presentation. She would be concerned with the problem of adapting her lesson to a large, unseen group, representing extremes in individual differences even greater than those found in her own classroom. She would have to

adjust her presentation to the time allotted her as well.

But would not a few hours of her time be amply repaid with the knowledge that she is extending her teaching to perhaps thousands of children? Would not Miss Jones, armed with pictures and "souvenirs" brought home after a summer of traveling and living in Italy, have a great deal to offer a group of children studying the country? Surely her personal contact with the land and its people would arouse more interest than would the cold black and white pages of a text.

Let us pause for a moment and look back at our schools, fifty years ago. Now take a close look at the advances we have made in our use of educational aids in the audio-visual field. Is it then so difficult to envision a school room fifty years from now, in which the use of television is as common-place as the use of texts?

Radio and television are powerful media, to be sure. The importance of television in our daily lives is increasing with an awesome speed. Whether it is to serve as a great tool for the enlightenment of man, as did the printing press so long ago, is ours to decide. In our hands it can become a powerful means of teaching a democratic way of life, a plaything, or a means of propaganda for those who wish to undermine our God-given freedoms. We must allow radio, and television as it becomes economically feasible, to enter our classrooms. Only then can they become useful, mighty tools in the hands of democracy.

Modern School

Buildings *are* Different

By EMMET D. WILLIAMS

*Superintendent of Roseville Schools
St. Paul, Minnesota*

“MY! THIS IS CERTAINLY a far cry from the school I went to when I was young!” and “Don’t you wish you were young again and could go to school in a building like this?” are typical reactions of many adults to our modern new school buildings. At the same time there are some who claim that the new schools are too low, too open, too rambling, too extensive and too expensive.

Regardless of whether the reactions are favorable or are unfavorable, all can agree on one conclusion, “Modern schools are different.” We may be so traditional that we cannot appreciate the new architectural designs, but we must admit schools today are more functional, are safer, are better lighted, are better heated and are better ventilated. Actually the new architectural look is partially the result of designs to accommodate newer lighting, better heating and modern ventilating systems. The new look is also the result of buildings designed to accommodate the educational programs planned for the children who will attend the schools. Another way of putting it is to say that good schools are built from the inside out rather than from preconceived ideas of what a school building should look like.

Function Dictates Design

School buildings today are not built

just to house children. They are designed to accommodate and to facilitate the instruction that goes on inside. Let us look at what goes on in a modern educational program. Let us consider what the building must be like to accommodate that program.

Learning by doing is being practiced in our classrooms today. Instruction is geared to the individual differences of children. Audio-visual aids are widely used. Remedial instruction for those children handicapped by disability or slow starts is part of the work in the school. Art and music are a part of the elementary as well as the secondary school program. Health services are required for all.

What does all this mean in the elementary school? Research has shown us the desirability of the self-contained classroom for elementary age children. In general, then, what should the elementary school classroom be like?

This classroom must be larger than the traditional one. It must allow for individual and group work with concrete materials. It must be flexible in its arrangements so that every curriculum activity can be handled within it since the children are under their one teacher for the total day’s activities. It must provide space for storing and for displaying many books and other instructional materials. It must provide facilities for the use of various art media.

These art materials in some instances require special storage facilities. Library shelving, work counters, storage cases, movable furniture and large bulletin board spaces are some of the things that make a modern classroom different from a traditional one.

Today's elementary school contains more than classrooms that are different. Spaces are provided for more specialists than in the schools of yesterday. There is the health suite for the nurse. There are offices and workrooms for the special and remedial teachers. There are offices for the administrative personnel and places for storing records and equipment. Kitchen and lunchroom facilities are a part of the school. Playroom and physical education facilities are required. All these spaces needed for today's educational program make the functional design of new elementary buildings different.

High School Functions Greatly Increased

A modern high school plays a far different role in education from that which the secondary school of earlier times performed. Whereas the high school was first conceived as an institution to train the intellectually capable boys and girls for college, today it is a school for all the children of all the people. It still must do well its original function. In addition, it offers pre-vocational and vocational education for those not headed for the universities. It also gives general education and citizenship training to all.

Special departments, each with its unique function and extensive equipment, are a part of today's high school. Science, business education, industrial arts, home making, music, art and physical education are examples of instruc-

tional areas each requiring different space treatment and special furniture and equipment. Then, too, the library in today's schools has increased functions to perform. It is not only the repository of books and magazines, but it is the material center for the storing and distribution of countless new teaching aids such as pictures, records, tapes, films and illustrative tools. With the passing of the traditional study hall, the library has also become a research study center as well as a free reading area. Changes in library design have naturally followed these changes in function.

Instructional Practices Have Changed

Educational practices that have proved to be successful in elementary school instruction are now having an impact upon teaching in the high schools. More research, reading, doing and experimenting by the students is taking the place of lecturing by the teacher. Flexible classroom furniture arrangements, work and conference tables, ample books and supplies storage spaces and large bulletin boards are as necessary in a modern high school classroom as in today's elementary schoolroom. Each room needs to be equipped for the use of audio-visual aids and other modern instructional tools. This means a number of electrical outlets, window darkening shades or blinds, wall hangers for maps and screens and good acoustical treatment. Truly the classrooms in today's high schools need to be as different as do the rooms in our new elementary schools. Only then do they really function to improve instruction and thus the education of our youth.

New Junior High School Organization Changes Buildings

Recently the junior high school has

been undergoing deep organizational changes. Originally developed to meet the needs of the young teen-age group of students, it somehow came to ape the highly departmentalized, traditional senior high school. After falling into disfavor among many parents and educators, it received the study and attention needed. Clarification of function, reorganization of curriculum and improvement of instructional practices are making the junior high school really help students make the transition from elementary to senior high school and it is beginning to meet the needs of the teen-age youngster it serves.

The newer practices in the junior high school dictate changes in interior space designs in the new buildings. Large, flexible classrooms similar in design to good elementary school rooms are needed to facilitate good instruction in the "block" or "core" program. Consequent changes in the flow of students through the building dictate different co-ordination of spaces within the school. Emphasis on experiences common to the needs of all students changes the layouts of special departments from that found in senior high schools. The well designed junior high school of today is truly different from the traditional one.

Advances In Engineering Dictate Change

We pride ourselves on the technological age in which we live. We accept radical engineering discoveries and we demand their incorporation in our automobiles and in all other types of power machines we use. We continually anticipate better radio and television receivers. We expect better highways and bridges because of engineering advances and the use of more efficient construction techniques. New discoveries and

advances in engineering knowledge have made great improvements in the lighting, in the heating and in the ventilating systems for buildings. These advances make feasible and desirable changes in building design. We should not only anticipate different school building design to accommodate engineering advances, but we should demand it of architects.

Knowledge Of Improved Lighting Dictates New Building Designs

The perfecting of the fluorescent light and improved knowledge of what is involved in good school room lighting has made possible radical changes in school design. Complete reliance on natural lighting dictated the old two-to-one classroom width-to-height ratio which up to very recently was incorporated into nearly all state school building codes. For example, a twenty-four feet wide classroom required a twelve foot ceiling height. Classrooms had to be rather long and narrow or if wide, had to have unduly high ceilings. Improved artificial lighting fixtures and bi-lateral or double unilateral natural lighting have out-dated these old rigid classroom dimension requirements. Functional, wide classrooms with low ceilings have now dictated low, wide school buildings.

An understanding of the great importance of low light differentials in surrounding areas for the reduction of eye fatigue has also greatly changed the appearance of the modern classroom. Light-colored floors, light-colored furniture and soft colors on wall surfaces are needed to reduce light reflection differences within the classroom. Roof overhangs and new types of interior and exterior shading devices are being used to reduce the light intensities of the window surfaces and to cut sky glare.

Heating And Ventilating Advances Make Possible New Building Lay-Outs

Heat can now be quickly and efficiently distributed over long distances even from low pressure steam boilers. The perfection of the return vacuum pump literally helps create steam as well as to pull it quickly through the distribution and return lines. Continuous fin radiation has replaced the old, noisy, inefficient steam radiator. Automatic thermostatic controls closely guard the temperature in each classroom or working space.

The perfection of high velocity air fans has also helped make possible new types of building and room ventilating systems efficient to operate even in spread-out buildings. A smaller room volume of air is now required per person in a classroom in order properly to control body heat radiation and to provide necessary odor elimination.

Peripheal heating tunnels make possible and feasible on-slab, on-grade construction of schools even in the coldest climates. In other words school buildings can now be efficiently heated and ventilated regardless of height or shape. This allows for wide variances in school lay-out design to meet the desired local educational program and to accomodate the site conditions and the community environment into which the school must fit.

New Materials Give Schools Different Look

One of the maxims for efficient school construction is to use locally produced, easily available materials. Steel and concrete structures in the East and all-wood buildings in the Northwest make sense. Pre-fabricated materials built with mass production techniques today offer the best opportunities for lower

cost, quickly constructed schools. Glazed structural units, aluminum windows and frames, enameled insulated wall panels, combination acoustical and rigid construction ceiling panels, glue-on tile sheets and standard types of factory constructed casework are just a few examples of the new types of building materials used in school construction. When well chosen and judiciously used, these new materials give both beauty and utility to the building. Thus the building gets a different appearance inwardly and outwardly.

Steel, concrete and wood framing materials are often left exposed in the new schools, especially in the one-story structure. While often this is done in the interest of economy, a new, honest look is given to the building. Then, too, materials that serve double duty are often used. Soft wood paneling doubling for bulletin boards or acoustical panels doing the same job give the school room a different look, beautiful and functional.

As school repair and maintenance costs have risen, more attention has been given to the long time upkeep expense of certain types of building material. The total cost of a school building must include initial cost plus upkeep and maintenance over the life of the structure. Often cheap initial construction proves to be expensive to maintain. Conversely more expensive initial construction may prove to be low cost because of minimum upkeep needs. This realization has led to the use of impervious types of permanent finish materials in such interior locations as corridors and lavatories. When well chosen as to color and type, these hard finish or glazed materials give a lasting beauty to a school interior and the maintenance cost is practically nil.

Architectural Styles Are Changing

Architecturally speaking the school is no longer considered a monument to some ancient culture or a landmark to be made visible for blocks or miles around. Schools today are designed for children and their use and are built to blend into their surroundings. Simple, straight lines have taken the place of elaborate facades and high parapet walls. The outdoors and the indoors are blended and are often jointly used for instructional purposes.

Lightweight framing, light wall construction, exposed structure and combination ceiling and roof decks have made low, one-story schools as economical to build as multi-story structures. One story buildings are safer for children and they are easier to administer unless they become too extensive. They lend themselves to the economical construction of wide rooms and thus to the building of the functional, square classroom. One story construction also lends itself to the use of various ceiling and

multi-lateral natural lighting schemes. Low buildings fit into modern home architecture and thus blend nicely into residential areas.

When restricted site sizes or large student populations dictate multi-story schools, even these schools are not overly high and unsightly buildings. On-grade construction, low classroom ceilings and simple lines give even the multi-story building that sweeping look that makes the schools today different, externally as well as internally.

Free and varied use of color makes the modern school a delight to children and a source of wonder to parents. Too often, though, we are prone to criticize the beautiful because we associate loveliness with high cost. We forget that color, correct use of materials and simplicity, when properly blended, give a beauty that is basic and lasting. Our modern schools have it. It truly makes them different. Yet, it is something for which we thank the architects and designers, but for which we pay the builder nothing extra.

A Formula *for* Guidance Services

By HELEN BRYANT BARRY

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IN RECENT YEARS guidance has come to the front as one of the most important functions of the school. Services of this kind should begin prior to a child's entrance into school and should continue throughout his school life, with placement and aid to entrance into institutions of higher learning as a part of the service. With diversified present-day educational opportunities and a growing knowledge of the basic concepts of individual differences and human development, the school stands in a position, never before possible, to render service to the total life of a pupil. The complexity of modern occupational life demands it; the growing philosophy of education supports it; the importance of human relations compels it.

So rapid has been the spread of the movement that many school systems are still in the process of analyzing possibilities to adapt principles and experiences observed elsewhere to fit their own needs. The size of school systems, at this point, does not matter. For some of the best work is being done in small schools and some of the weakest in large schools, though this is not usually the case. Suffice it to say, there is little question of its importance. As a consequence, competent guidance has become second only to instruction.

Definition of Guidance Services

Guidance consists not of something separate but rather of a whole directed

program and is the responsibility of all who are a part of the adult group connected with or concerned with the school. It must go beyond this, however. Guidance depends upon professional skill, and mature judgment. The consideration, therefore, must be one which deals with the ideals of a guidance program as these ideals are modified and adapted to suit individual schools and school systems.

Guidance services, then, include (1) all of the services rendered by the state and county organization which help the administration within a single school to meet the needs of its constituency; (2) administrative and instructional training, cooperation, and administration of an accepted guidance program; (3) and counseling as a distinct service by all qualified to render such within the school.

Basic Elements of a Guidance Program

In the consideration of any guidance program for a school, certain basic elements must be considered. Upon consulting the more successful and experienced authorities, one finds the following suggestions most practical:

- (1) Guidance services are to be made available for all pupils.
- (2) The gathering of objective pupil data is essential.
- (3) Variations within the individual and among individuals are significant.

- (4) The guidance program should be organized so that it makes the maximum contribution to the entire school program.
- (5) Counseling should enable the individual to evaluate himself and his responsibilities, to decide upon a course of action, and actively and positively to follow a plan in regard to his decision.
- (6) Guidance should encourage pupils to develop ability in self-guidance.
- (7) The responsibility of a guidance program should be centered in a qualified and trained personnel.

Functions of the Guidance Program

It must be stated as a general principle that the functions of the guidance program must be determined by the needs of the pupils. Only by making a careful study of the individual may such goals be decided. The pupil must understand his own needs, and the counselor will formulate basic principles upon which to aid the pupil to solve his problems with proper decisions and plans.

One purpose of the guidance program, whether country-wide in organization or purely school-centered, is to provide information. This can be supplied by the teachers, in part, through their regular class program and conferences. However, much additional well-selected and purposeful material should be distributed by the administration, guidance council, or guidance experts. This may be done in various ways, including individual and group counseling, career days, and other special emphases.

A second function is the actual coun-

seling process. Adequate physical facilities are needed and proper literature. This presupposes, also, that there are trained members of the guidance program to fulfill this need. A counseling time and opportunity must be provided and pupils encouraged to come with a mature presentation of the problem to be discussed, then led to make the changes within themselves which are desirable.

However, education is not merely the result of what the individual does for himself. If this were so, there would be no need for guidance. There are other determining factors in the development of a person's life. So it is that through a direct and positive program, guidance is direction, even assistance.

Placement is another function of guidance, enabling the graduating student to adjust to the next situation in life. This may be accomplished best by a well-organized council working in close relationship with community agencies. A person to whom this one definite responsibility has been assigned aids in the coordination and success of this service. Most schools which have a guidance program include as a major area of endeavor a vocational guidance program through which occupational information may be distributed, aptitude tests administered and interpreted to the pupils, programs planned in assemblies and elsewhere, and distributive education taught with opportunity for actual experience, followed by placement assistance.

Still another function of the guidance program is that of testing. This begins upon entrance into school and progresses with the pupil until his graduation. The selections of the tests are based upon the (1) age of pupil, (2) state of progress, (3) use. Besides the tests,

records are gathered, combined, and used by the guidance personnel. All of these, plus the tests, compose the pupil's cumulative permanent record. Included are health records, records of academic progress, social progress, case history, and anecdotal.

In a limited article all functions of a guidance program could not be considered. The broad principle underlying any plan or program as it is inaugurated must be to assist in the preparation of a balanced individual, equipping him to meet life both satisfactorily and successfully.

Initiating and Sustaining a Guidance Program.

Before beginning a guidance program, a pre-program inventory should be taken to establish facts regarding the necessity for such a program and the potentialities within the school to administer it successfully. A good check list should be used to determine the readiness of a school to develop guidance services.

Under the leadership of the administration several preliminary meetings should be arranged to consider the entire problem. Subsequent meetings with parents, representatives of the community, and others may be advisable. From these meetings should evolve a pre-organization committee whose duty would include: (1) exploring opportunities of setting up a guidance program, (2) enlisting the support of those who will be involved with the program, and (3) suggesting a plan of organization.

Following this would be, of course, the actual implementation of the guidance program. In some cases a guidance council is established. In others, the superintendent appoints members who

will serve with the program. Many methods are used in the initiation of the services of guidance, each suitable for the particular school or system.

In-Service Education.

The need for this type of education exists because of the newness of personnel and guidance work. This training must be continuous and must provide information concerning changes in needs and new developments in methods.

The kind of preservice or in-service training given depends upon the school or school system. Basic essentials of the training of any counselor include, of course, a college degree, teacher preparatory courses in the fields of education, sociology, psychology, and a natural bent toward counseling.

Types of in-service training include: extension courses, offered by institutions of teacher-training; on-campus courses taken in summer sessions at a chosen university; field service training which provides an opportunity for the school personnel to have a course of study within its own school, taught by some members of the State Department of Education or others qualified to teach such a course; and actual learning through observation.

Forms of Organization.

(1) The centralized form is centered about a group of "experts" who are trained in guidance activities and techniques, and all of the services in this area are administered and coordinated by this group. Usually there is a central guidance office from which most of the program emanates. Whether this plan is adopted or not, it is usually recognized that coordinated activity is essential, with the duties of each person

concerned with the guidance program well defined. However, we must admit the interdependence of guidance functions and the distribution of these functions in any scheme of guidance.

(2) The noncentralized form of guidance confines the duties of counseling primarily to the teachers. Under this system usually the method is informal and non-directive in type and shows little, if any, coordination.

Most authorities agree that a form combining both of these types or midway between is most usually advisable, for each has advantages as well as disadvantages. There is danger in too elaborate an organization, yet contradictory advice and duplication may be avoided by the noncentralized plan.

In each school the personnel services need to be synthesized by a central person and definite responsibilities for all parts of the work assigned to particular workers. The nominal head always is the principal. If he is not trained in personnel work, he may delegate to a specialist major duties, but he remains keyman of personnel work within the school. The person to whom responsibility is assigned should be trained and competent and released from at least one half of all other work. This person also must be coordinator of administration of guidance services, physical resources, and counseling activities.

State and County Cooperation.

While the final decisions pertaining to and the organization of a guidance program rest with each school, most states aid considerably in the process by providing leadership and cooperation.

This is expressed in printed literature, personnel training, conferences for planning, and in various consultation capacities. General goals and coordinated efforts lead to unity and furnish example and encouragement.

Within the county, especially, under the direction of the Division of Instructional Services, most systems are able to receive various services as aids to the counseling and guidance program. Many smaller schools depend upon personnel from these units to administer and score the tests used, to provide assembly programs, to suggest emphases on guidance and personal growth, to aid in the organization of student government, and to help with placement. Materials are sent out and various statistics are gathered and used by the guidance consultants of the larger unit, also.

Drawing upon these services, observing other programs over the county, carefully formulating educational philosophies, and supported by a sympathetic and helpful citizenry, the individual school, however small, is equipped to attempt a splendid program of guidance. In conclusion, it may be said that the guidance program is designed to meet the needs of students through direction and experience from the initial orientation into each new level through the following up on students who leave upon graduation to enter the business world or to enter institutions of higher learning, so that each child may progress and achieve his highest level of personal, civic, and occupational competence.

Dr. and Mrs. Garry Cleveland Myers



DR. GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS and Caroline Myers—a husband and wife team—have made substantial contributions to education over the years. Their unique dialogues before meetings of parents and teachers have been acclaimed widely. Through his syndicated daily column, Dr. Myers has interpreted educational practices for parents. He is an active associate editor of *EDUCATION* and his first article in *EDUCATION* appeared in April 1917.

HIGHLIGHTS FOR CHILDREN, a magazine for children widely used in schools and homes, is edited by Dr. and Mrs. Myers. It aims to provide youngsters from three to twelve with a wide variety of fun. While some of this fun consists of smiles and laughter, most of it is of a deeper and more lasting nature. *HIGHLIGHTS* assumes that being able to think and create more than he ever

supposed he could, that finding in himself mental powers he had never known he had, that bringing out of his own head much he had never discovered there, can be very great fun for the child.

So *HIGHLIGHTS FOR CHILDREN* is *fun with a purpose*, an educational purpose. A part of this purpose is to ready the non-reading child to learn to read, to help the beginning reader get the hang of reading and enjoy success in the early steps of reading; also to help the reading child at any stage to read better. The emphasis is on meaning, amplified with pictures of familiar or partly familiar things and activities, and stimulated by challenges to think and reason by using what's already in the youngster's head.

HIGHLIGHTS also aims to impart useful information, not around the Ripley type but around facts added to

those about which the child already has some familiarity. It aims to supplement regular school learning and to stimulate imagination and creation.

In contrast with violence that children are exposed to in some comic books, and in many programs on the air and movie screen, HIGHLIGHTS avoids suggestions of violence. Without being prissy, it aims to exalt the preciousness of persons and to further good mental health and human kindness.

Purposely, the broad range of interest appeal and difficulty of reading in HIGHLIGHTS takes account of the wide individual differences in interests, abilities, and skills among children at home and at school. While much of each issue, even in the same feature is within the grasp of the nonreading child, practically none of it is infantile. Many of the selfsame features and stories aim to be attractive both to the listening child, three to seven, and to the reading child, eight to twelve. In the family of several young children, HIGHLIGHTS enables the older child to read to the younger, amusing this child usefully and furthering his own reading skills; and the whole family to have fun together.

Applied throughout this publication, is the psychology of positive suggestion, beginning with every child's wish to feel worthwhile as a person; wish to

seem to be as old in years as he really is, or older; wish to grow up; wish to enjoy achievement and be likable and have many friends.

Words like *should* and *ought* and *should not* and *ought not* are avoided in HIGHLIGHTS except when said by another child looked up to. Parents and teachers are portrayed in words and pictures always as attractive persons. Through positive suggestion, moreover, the users of HIGHLIGHTS are motivated to want to do right and to practice in safe and healthy ways; to act unselfishly, with due regard for the rights and feelings of others. Furthermore, through positive suggestions, the child is led to see that to pray and worship God are proper things to do. His attention is turned toward the imperishables, and "a person's wealth does not consist of the abundance of things which he possesses."

Yet HIGHLIGHTS FOR CHILDREN is nonsectarian. The child is led to feel and act kindly toward persons who are different from him in religion, race, or nationality. Besides, he is led to feel himself a kind neighbor to all persons of the world. Familiar English words are often presented as they are said in different languages around the world. And the universal language of pictures drawn by children of other countries often appears in HIGHLIGHTS. (E. A. B.)

DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*

School of Education, New York University

BACKWARDNESS IN READING. By M. D. Vernon. Cambridge University Press. 32 East 57th Street, New York 22, New York. 1957.

M. D. Vernon, author of three classic volumes on visual perception and reading, has published a new study of the nature and origin of *Backwardness in Reading* (Cambridge University Press, 1957). In this well-documented book, Psychologist Vernon traces the development of visual and auditory perception as a basis for learning phonic skills, critically evaluates causes of reading disabilities, and considers the "cure of reading disability." This readable book merits study by psychologists, educators, and others concerned with the prevention and remediation.

—(E. A. B.)

READING IN ACTION. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 2. Nancy Larrick, editor. New York, Scholastic Magazines, 1957. \$2.00.

Reading in Action is a comprehensive report of the Second Annual Conference of the International Reading Association. It reflects some of the best current thinking concerning both accepted and controversial practices, present trends, acknowledged problems, and continuance of research in the field of reading. The reading program from kindergarten through college is subjected to thoughtful appraisal with emphasis on approaches, methods, and techniques that have brought about rewarding achievement. Practical suggestions abound throughout the report.

Some of the questions which are discussed are the following. What do we know about children's interests and how they change as children develop? What is the relationship between mass media and children's reading interests? How can we develop a program to meet these interests? How can we evaluate and select the right books? How can we challenge the interests and capacities of the gifted? How can we maintain continuous development of reading skills from the readiness stage throughout the high school? How can

we locate a child's undeveloped skills? A college student's undeveloped skills? How shall we develop basic skills? How shall we improve comprehension? What part does listening play in the development of reading comprehension? How does reading relate to the whole language program? How much and what reading can we expect from the mentally retarded? What diagnostic and remedial methods are being used for the retarded reader?

In what sense do authors give of themselves in writing books for children? What is action research? Why is it needed? What standards should be met in action research? How can we better prepare teachers of reading through the college? Through in-service training? What is the rôle of the reading consultant? What is the P.T.A. doing and what more can it do to further the success of the reading program? Not even the parents are left out of this amazing coverage.

May Hill Arbuthnot, Sterl A. Artley, Jeanne Chall, William S. Gray, Leland B. Jacobs, Emmett A. Betts, Arthur Traxler, May Lazar, Margaret McKim, Irving Lorge, Russell Stauffer, Jordan L. Larson, and Gertrude Whipple are just a few of the more than a hundred reading specialists whose contributions make this report merit a place in the library of every teacher of reading. It will also find its place in up-to-date school libraries.

Dr. Linda C. Smith
Associate Director
The Betts Reading Clinic

WHY TEACH? Edited by D. Louise Sharp. New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1957. 240 p. \$4.00.

In this age in which the critical shortage of teachers bears tragic testimony to the status of teaching as a profession, it is heartening to read a constructive and inspirational book such as *Why Teach?* edited by D. Louise Sharp. The editor, a Dean of Women and Professor of Psychology and Education at

Central Michigan College, tells us that in preparing the book, she wrote to outstanding people in many fields to secure their personal viewpoints on teaching and teachers because she "felt the need for inspirational material in the field of teaching." In describing her motivation in the Preface, she states her conviction that it is not enough to appeal to the Nation's youth merely by emphasizing the serious shortage of teachers! it would seem wise also to stress "the values in teaching as a career." Thus in her book she has accentuated the positive aspects of teaching as a profession—not the poor salaries but rather the income in terms of satisfactions to be derived from the job. The result is an excellent, enthusiastic collection of essays in which many teachers and individuals influenced by teachers attest to the fact that teaching is a challenging adventurous, and richly rewarding career.

Among the highlights of the book are the warm and wonderful words which teachers had to say about their chosen profession. John Lester Buford gives profound evidence of his commitment to teaching in a refrain which recurs throughout the book when he tells us, "If I had it to do over again, I would choose teaching. Knowing what I know now, I would choose it even more enthusiastically than I did when I started in a rural school 38 years ago." Mary Ellen Chase writes vividly of the students who have given her "the best life anyone could have." Harry Overstreet speaks of teaching as "a privilege and a delight" and adds that if life "like a waiter in an inn" were to ask him "What'll you have now?" he would reply, "More of the same." Author-teacher Helen C. White remarks that throughout the years "the teacher discovers that he comes to receive more than he ever gave." Dr. M. F. Ashley Montagu summarizes his views with a lofty tribute to his calling:

"To lead and to cause to grow, to be led in turn and thus to grow in oneself, what greater satisfaction can there be? Teachers are the unacknowledged legislators of the world; they are instruments of purposes greater than themselves—the noble purposes with which they can inspire their pupils. What a challenge. What a privilege."

These meaningful statements from men and women for whom teaching has been a stimu-

lating and satisfying experience are supported by vivid, moving and sometimes humorous personal experiences which make this book most fascinating reading.

Teachers are not the only contributors to this well-balanced collection. It is enlightening to read the thoughtful comments of people from all professions and all walks of life—Senator Margaret Chase Smith, Marion Mill Preminger (whose teacher was Albert Schweitzer), Howard Lindsey, Judge Harold R. Medina, Cornelia Otis Skinner, Helen Keller, Sam Levenson, college student Elizabeth Evans—who write enthusiastically about the effect which teachers have had on their thinking and living.

The tributes to teaching as a profession which are presented in this book are a major inspirational contribution at a time when, as Jacques Barzun has remarked, "teaching is not a lost art, but the regard for it is a lost tradition." It is hoped that this book with its forceful message will reach and influence those who are looking questioningly at teaching as a future career as well as those who are looking critically at it as a profession.

Evelyn M. Willson
Assistant Professor
Newark State Teachers College

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION AND PRIVATE EDUCATION. By Arthur S. Miller. Chapel Hill, North Carolina. The University of North Carolina Press. 1957. \$3.50.

Administrators and boards of directors of private schools will want to read this book to find out some of the problems that they might face in regards to educational racial discrimination. Mr. Miller, a lawyer, has restricted himself primarily to the legal aspects yet has written in language easily understood by all. In this volume the author discusses the private school system, government and private sanctions against integration, the public nature of private education, and limitations in grants and gifts. In addition he gives his own appraisal of the situation as he sees it today. A most timely book in relation to the current Little Rock, Arkansas situation.

Jerome Leavitt
Portland State College
Portland, Oregon

THE CHILD IN THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS.
By Daniel A. Prescott. N. Y. McGraw-Hill.
1957. \$6.50.

Sixteen, and more, years of continuous experimentation with ways of helping teachers to achieve an adequate understanding of individual children in their own classrooms are behind this helpful volume. Dr. Prescott, Director of the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland, is one of our leading authorities in the field of child development. A major purpose of this book is to describe a specific three-year program of child study activities by in-service teachers. Dr. Prescott enlivens his report by some excellent case studies presented against a background analysis of sound educational theory and concrete classroom happenings. The four parts of the book logically divide the subject: Part One presents the philosophical, social, and scientific assumptions upon which the educative process must rest; Part Two analyzes the knowledge and skills a teacher must possess in order to understand his pupils as individual, developing persons; Part Three offers a theoretical scientific explanation of human behavior, development, and adjustment; Part Four describes practical steps which various school systems are taking to implement philosophy and theory.

—William P. Sears

GUIDANCE FOR TODAY'S SCHOOLS, by Charles R. Foster, published by Ginn and Company, represents one of the best guidance texts available with respect to its emphasis upon utilization of community resources and the classroom teacher's rôle as the chief guidance worker in the school.

The author stresses the importance of using many community agencies and offers techniques for utilization of these valuable resources. It is necessary he points out, for the guidance service of the school to co-ordinate its program with the several guidance agencies in the community.

Due emphasis is placed upon the work of the skilled counselor, but classroom teachers are held to be in a position to be most helpful in guiding children and youth. With the book's emphasis upon community resources, the author points out that parents, employers and friends have an important rôle to play.

Dr. Foster has emphasized guidance as a means to social, educational and vocational effectiveness. This effectiveness can best be secured by team effort toward the better adjustment of the pupil. He points out that guidance takes place in the classroom through extracurricular activities, and through experiences in the home, community, and in the world of work.

Considerable emphasis is given to vocational effectiveness, with suggested plans and techniques. Interest, values, abilities and attitudes are analyzed, with tests and other means of evaluating individual characteristics which match job requirements. Such specific techniques as career day, college days, the guidance club, occupational surveys and assembly programs have been particularly well handled. The author also sets forth needed training for guidance workers and points to the importance of careers in student personnel work.

Guidance For Today's Schools is well suited for use in university courses, in-service training programs and for use by community guidance agencies. The book follows accepted theory, is well grounded in its utilization of research and presents many practical ways of improving school and community guidance.

Emery Stoops

Head, Department of

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University of Southern California

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SUPERVISION NUMBER

GEORGE W. DENEMARK, *Guest Editor*

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No. 4

A New Look at Supervision

By GEORGE W. DENEMARK

Assistant Dean, College of Education,
University of Maryland

"IN TODAY'S WORLD, an individual has to know four or five times as much as he had only a generation ago just to get by."

These words from a recent speech of Norman Cousins, distinguished editor of the *Saturday Review*, provide a basis for much of what is said in this article and those which follow, on the subject of the function of supervision in today's elementary and secondary schools.

Although certainly not a new notion, it is none-the-less extremely significant that our world, and particularly our own American society, is an increasingly complex, specialized one. A larger and larger number of skilled workers are needed in industry to operate and maintain the complicated machines responsible for our modern standard of living, one undreamed of a few short years ago. Other persons, even more skilled, are needed to design these machines, plan their use, and co-ordinate their production with the many others operating by their side. Yet we are only on the threshold of a world of automation, powered by atoms and controlled by electronics. The real revolution lies just ahead.

Man Needs a Unified Perspective

While it is true that these developments place increasing demands on the

education of our youth in terms of the acquisition of necessary operational skills, they make even more significant demands upon education in terms of its responsibility to help individuals develop an adequate perspective of the whole world and of their place in it. Regardless of the special demands upon men in increasingly differentiated areas of work, a more basic need is for man to transcend this differentiation and build a philosophy of life and a concept of community which fits these parts into a meaningful and coherent whole. Again in the words of Norman Cousins, "... we will have somehow to rescue him (man) from the prison of compartmentalization that has characterized our age." It is our contention that rescuing man from his "prison of compartmentalization" is the central task of today's schools. While it is obvious that a task of such magnitude cannot be accomplished alone by the school, it seems also readily apparent that this institution is in a strategic place to join with the family in helping youth to build and test in action a unifying philosophy of life. It is our further conviction that the supervisor's job, in its most fundamental sense, is that of helping classroom teachers work more effectively toward this objective.

The Teacher's Basic Rôle is Helping Youth Unify Experience

The temptation in education has been strong to meet by specialization of functions the demands of an increasingly complex world in which both our knowledge and our problems seem to be multiplying in geometric progression. What is a more natural impulse than that of meeting the growing complexity of life by seeking to divide the whole into manageable parts? Furthermore, this pattern in education would only parallel that in industry and many other facets of contemporary life. Where we have followed this tendency in education our teachers have moved toward becoming more and more expert in one narrow field. They have welcomed the assistance of a growing body of specialists ready to do particular jobs for the teacher—i.e. music instruction, art, remedial reading, guidance, etc. They have welcomed, too, the expansion of bureaus designed to provide services such as testing, research, and curriculum development. With this increased specialization and the expanded use of the expert has often come feelings of satisfaction that the needs of children and youth are being well met because they are ministered to by a whole staff of experts, each a specialist in his own field. It is our vigorous contention that something terribly important is missing from such an education—that something being a growingly unified, consistent body of experience. *This is basically the job of the classroom teacher.*

Supervisors Help Teachers Realize Their Potential

Providing such a unified body of experience is a big job for any person or

group of persons. It is particularly so when many of them are new in their profession and in the community. In some school systems across the United States one-fifth to one-third of the classrooms will be filled this fall with new teachers. It is here that the rôle of the supervisor is most significant. The effective supervisor can help all teachers but particularly help these new teachers to remain—generalists—or perhaps more truly—to become specialists—in providing a unified, integrated educational experience for the boys and girls in their classes. This conception of the supervisor's job is far different from that which involves doing things for the classroom teacher, or seeing that the teacher does in fact carry out certain prescribed responsibilities. It suggests rather that the supervisor's major function is that of providing the leadership and the resources in materials, personnel and experience which will help each teacher to become more fully what he is capable of becoming as a person and as a professional worker. Rather than narrowing the function of the classroom teacher and turning over aspects of instruction, guidance, research, testing, public relations, etc. to others, this philosophy calls for major responsibility in each of these areas remaining in the hands of the teacher, with all of the resources of the school system available to enrich and extend the teacher's efforts. Rather than lopping off parts of the teacher's job in order to meet the problem of complexity, this point of view calls for giving more and more help to the teacher in her continuing task of becoming all that she might be as an agent fostering growth and self discipline in the children placed in her charge.

Supervisors Facilitate Teachers' Continuing Education

It is foolish to assume that in today's world of specialization and complexity a teachers' preparation is complete at the end of the four year undergraduate college program. Teacher education programs are aiming instead for the provision of a sound foundation for continued learning through an extensive program of general education and through a carefully planned sequence of professional courses. Whether or not learning continues will depend both upon the nature of the pre-service education received and, in large measure, upon the effectiveness of the supervisor with whom such teachers work. Nearly every supervisor in a modern school system has important responsibilities for the in-service education of staff members. Without a carefully planned and extensive in-service program, the education of most of our classroom teachers would be incomplete.

Supervisors Link Individual Schools With School System

Another important responsibility of the elementary and secondary school supervisor is that of helping to forge a common link between individual school programs while avoiding unnecessary standardization of all curricula within the system. Support is growing among modern educators for the belief that the basic unit of curriculum development should be the individual school rather than the total school system, community, county or state. Individual school programs need to be related to one another, however, if they are to take full advantage of the resources of the total community and if they are to meet the common needs of the larger community.

Such co-ordination calls for a skilled, sensitive person—one who can co-ordinate without pressuring programs into the form closest to the personal preference of the supervisor. The day is past when the modern supervisor can hold with one of her ancient predecessors that "it is good to be able to check the time while sitting at my desk and know that in every fifth grade classroom in the county all of the children are at work on mixed fractions."

Supervisors Help Relate School and Community

Still another dimension of the modern supervisor's job is that of working with teachers, parents and other interested lay persons in the development of school programs and in the interpretation of what the school is doing. Fortunately, we are past the era when the school curriculum was strictly a matter for the "experts" to determine. Increasingly, parents and other lay persons are "in on the act." This has not resulted in any abdication of responsibility by professional people but rather has encouraged leadership geared to the recognition that the schools belong to the people. Such activity, to be truly meaningful, must avoid being simply a matter of school people "selling" their program to the public, and become instead a truly co-operative enterprise in which the public is involved in the planning as well as in the consumption of education.

Perhaps the central element in the leadership which school people must exercise in their relationships with the public is that of providing pertinent information about program and methods—about what works and what doesn't. Citizens need the facts to make com-

petent, intelligent decision and, for the most part, it is the responsibility of the professionals to establish the machinery for obtaining these facts. A research approach to teaching and to curriculum development is essential in the modern school and, if we are to have it, much depends upon the leadership of the supervisor. Today's supervisor needs skill in action research, both to apply to his own work and to make him effective as a consultant to the teachers in the system. It is interesting to speculate regarding how many of the ill-informed criticisms of modern education during the past decade could have been quickly disposed of had we built into our regular plans of teaching and administering school programs careful provision for research and evaluation. While facts alone would not suffice for some of the irresponsible critics of public education, "before and after" information obtained in the very communities and classrooms where innovations were underway would have undoubtedly won the sup-

port of many sincere and well-meaning citizens whose lack of information sometimes made them blocks to, or at best passive on-lookers of, new educational programs.

Supervisors Build Good Human Relations

All of the responsibilities of the modern supervisors we have identified above call for a skill in human relations that few other jobs demand. The success of the modern supervisor depends upon her effectiveness in relating to people and to changing them—changing them in ways which help them to better utilize their own potentialities.

Each of the dimensions of the supervisor's job which we have identified here is discussed in more detail in the articles that follow. It is hoped that each has been written in a manner which is understandable and interesting to lay persons and to beginning teachers for it is for them that we have sought to take a new look at supervision.

New York State Speech Association

Henry C. Youngerman, President of the New York State Speech Association, has announced that the sixteenth Annual Conference will be held at the Onondaga Hotel, Syracuse, New York, on March 14 and 15. Miss Frances M. Brown of the Kingsford Park School, Oswego, is President-elect of the Association, and J. Edward McEvoy, School of Speech and Dramatic Art, Syracuse University, is General Conference Chairman.

Questions Laymen Ask About Supervision

By FERN D. SCHNEIDER
Associate Professor of Education
University of Maryland

LAYMEN WITH BOTH personal and financial investments in the schools make many inquiries about supervision—and rightfully so. As their questions pose some difficulty in the answering, they also often promote a closer look and an evaluation of the service of supervision to the functioning of the school's programs. In meetings of lay people discussing supervision (supervision is often challenged at budget time) a barrage of such questions as the following frequently occur: "What is supervision?" "What do supervisors do?" "Could you give us a job analysis of supervision?" "What are the requirements for supervisory jobs?" "If we had smaller enrollments in our classrooms, could we eliminate some of the supervision?" "How about teacher aides to ease the need for supervisors?" "How can parents help?" "How can we tell when we are getting adequate returns for our investments?" What a challenge as a supervisor attempts some answers!

What is supervision?

Supervision means different things to different people, varying with their experience, background, and point of view. As the philosophy of supervision changes, the definition of the word changes. Winston defines supervision as the "act of inspecting, the authority to

oversee or direct." This definition was in keeping with the general philosophy and practice of school supervision prior to the 1920's. Wiles has more recently expressed the idea that "supervision is assistance in the development of a better teacher-learning situation."¹ This more nearly expresses the philosophy of supervision since 1935 when the emphasis began shifting to co-ordination, service, and democratic leadership. For this discussion, supervision may be thought of as that function of the educational staff which serves to improve learning opportunities for children and youth. The supervisor, then, would be any person (whatever his title) designated to expedite this function.

Who are the supervisors?

If we think in terms of the function to be performed in improving learning opportunities, then *many* school people are supervisors. Some are designated as general supervisors and are usually responsible for the co-ordination or unifying of the total learning program. Subject supervisors in such fields as art, physical education, science, etc. work with a special area of learning. Directors of instruction or curriculum usually place their emphasis on the curricula and courses of study for all children. Heads of departments

1. Wiles, Kimball. *Supervision for Better Schools*. 2nd Ed. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955.

are much the same as subject supervisors in a particular school. A school principal may well participate in all types of supervision. A teacher may, in some degree, be a supervisor as she helps other teachers in the instructional processes. The name "supervisor" is not so important as the function performed.

What do supervisors do?

A job analysis of supervision would likely vary considerably with each supervisor but in some degree the following responsibilities are sure to be included. New teachers lacking in experience need much assistance in orientation to the many new tasks they have to perform—how to individualize instruction, how to plan their work, what the course of study means, and how to get help when needed. Certainly, they will have had college courses covering most of these matters but "knowing about" and "doing" may be quite different. Then there are the teachers new to the system but with experience in other school systems. Orientation to different philosophies, standards, and curricula may be necessary. Nor can teachers of long service in a system be neglected. They need encouragement to try new and better ways of teaching and they need recognition for the leadership they provide.

Supervisors may be frequently thought of as teachers and guidance counselors of classroom teachers. High morale is important for good teaching and learning. Often personal problems affect teaching. Personal and social problems are dealt with professionally when they interfere with the learning process of boys and girls and here supervisors may help.

In-service programs must be planned to fit the needs, abilities and professional maturity of teachers. Supervisors plan

and direct such programs including study groups in such fields as child study, community resources, and curriculum development in various fields. Intervisitation among teachers can be arranged to share new methods and use of materials. Demonstrations either by the supervisor or other teachers are often scheduled. Workshops for groups of teachers to solve problems of their own must be organized, as well as general teachers' meetings for the discussion and interpretation of common problems. Supervisors are often asked to be consultants for meetings which faculties or other groups plan.

Supervisors usually prepare or direct the preparation of course of study materials and guides. Research, too, must be carried on to find newer and better ways of learning, new materials for classroom use, new texts, better ways of testing and evaluating, etc.

Interpretations of the school's program are continuously going on with parent and community groups. This, too, is a part of the supervisor's work. Only as the community understands and approves can the schools move forward.

What are the requirements for becoming a supervisor

Classroom teaching experience of from three to five years, courses in supervision and curriculum development and, in many places, a Master's Degree are required. Beyond this, abilities in co-operative action research, writing, and speaking, as well as the all important ability to work with people, are looked for in prospective supervisors.

Could we eliminate some of the supervisory work if we had smaller class enrollments?

Certainly, eliminating the pressures

upon teachers which large student numbers make would help. However, teachers will still need assistance at many points. Probably, all phases of the supervisory program would still be necessary. Boys and girls would undoubtedly benefit from teachers having to distribute their talents and energies over a smaller number of students. However, guidance for doing this in the best possible ways would still be necessary for the advancement of teachers and the whole educational program.

Would teacher aides help?

In performing some of the "non-professional" duties of teachers, aides may ease some of the pressures of the classroom. However, it is often difficult to draw the line between what is "professional" and what is not. Putting on Johnnie's overshoes or watching to see that he is not hurt on the playground may seem to be routine, but in such activities a professional teacher may find the very clues to a child's personality which the teacher needs to help him in his classroom learning. Teaching is a professional job demanding unique skills that range across many facets of living.

How can parents and laymen help?

Keep asking questions. These give

opportunities for interpretation and evaluation. Many points of view are needed to understand and help children. Parents' views of their children often open the way for teachers and supervisors to see children another way. Parents and lay people often have experiences which when used as resources for children improve their learning opportunities. Know what teachers and supervisors are attempting with your children—complement these with conversations, materials and trips. It is close-knit cooperation that counts. Be one of the team. Then parents, too, in an important sense, become supervisors.

How are laymen sure that they are getting adequate returns for their investments?

Returns on investments are usually in direct ratio to the amount invested and the worth of the commodity in which it is invested. There can be no question of the worth of the commodity—your child. The investment in money, time, energy, and talents of parents, laymen, teachers and supervisors working together so that the child—each child—may experience an environment in which he will discover all kinds of new learnings for himself, cannot bring anything but the highest returns. Watch your investment grow!

Super Vision: Expectations of Beginning Teachers

By MARIE DENECKE

*Instructor, College of Education
University of Maryland*

THE TEMPTATION is irresistible! The word comes alive and clues as to the magnitude of the job of supervision are readily and conspicuously discernible, it seems, as the word is deliberately separated into its two important parts. The pleasant, demanding and important task of teaching in all its aspects requires a "superness" of vision, to be sure, but that aspect of teaching which is under discussion herein is commonly known as *supervision*, and, particularly, the supervision of young, new, and thereby inexperienced teachers.

Growth Toward the Ideal

Concepts of supervision have undergone many changes during the past several years. These concepts and changes have been discussed throughout the pages of this publication. As of today, the bookshelf contains many excellent professional treatises which define and discuss the evolutionary changes in the philosophy and practice relating to supervision, and more such books are added to the shelf each year or so. Observable practice in supervision reflects the changes and discussions with teachers in service reveal attitudes indicating acceptance and approval of changing techniques. Needless to say, there is still much room for growing. Because of the obvious fact that human beings are

involved in two-way or, more often, multiple-way relationships in the supervisor-teacher contacts, there are inevitably gaps or lags between what is ideal practice and what is actual practice. In ideal practice, supervision avows that it is primarily and wholeheartedly concerned with the improvement of the conditions which surround children as they, the children, are working and learning in a classroom. Ideal practice bespeaks mutuality and genuine co-operativeness in all relationships involving those who supervise and those who are supervised. Practice is *not* always ideal, it must be acknowledged, but there is growing, hopeful evidence on every side that more and more people in more and more places are improving practice in supervision and, concomitantly, that teacher attitudes are changing constructively and perceptibly. This is of great significance, since it is deeply involved with the communication of wholesome and uplifting thoughts in relation to supervision and the more actively such thoughts are transmitted among people in the teaching profession the more inspired and the more effective will be the services rendered to those who are the most important—the children.

This transmission is involved also with the substance of the present article. In colleges and universities, many young people are presently preparing to work

as teachers. These young people are listening intently as in-service teachers and supervisors express their thoughts. Feelings and attitudes are revealed and it is to be hoped that these young people as they listen will hear more wholesome and constructive words and will hear fewer negative, derogatory and fear-inspiring words about teaching in general and supervision in particular.

Through the years many thousands of words have been written on the subject of supervision. For the most part, these words are more readily comprehended by persons who have had some background of experience, in the light of which experience the words are being read and interpreted. The purpose underlying the writing of the articles for this publication are interesting and challenging. Here are more words on the subject of supervision but there is a new look and a new direction, since these words are being written to be comprehended by persons who have had little or no direct experience to bring to bear upon the reading.

Asking Teachers-to-be About Supervision

When this series of articles was being planned by the author team it seemed that it would be profitable and enlightening to undertake some exploratory work with undergraduate students presently enrolled in teacher education at the university. What would be their concepts of supervision? The group of students in question was comprised of approximately sixty young people. They were then in the second semester of the third, or junior, year in college and were preparing to teach in elementary school. The matter was discussed in class and a question was asked, the substance of which follows

What do you expect of supervision? This is the end of your junior year in the College of Education. In just a few months, now, you will be very much closer to the realization of your dream and your plan to be a teacher, since you will be beginning your semester of teaching in an elementary school classroom.

During the coming semester you will come to know of supervision in more direct ways through the teacher with whom you will be working, through the principal of the school in which you will be teaching, and through the supervisor who works with teachers and principals in the area in which your school is located. A year from today you would probably find this question easier to answer since you would have had many experiences which would help you to answer. Very likely you have given some thought to the matter of supervision. What do you really expect of supervision? Think about this, please, and in a week or two you will be asked to record your thoughts briefly on paper. Your views will be revealing and helpful to all of us who are trying to help you along the way. Then too, in writing down your own thoughts you will probably help to crystallize and even clarify your own thinking.

Future Teachers Speak

The responses to this question were most interesting! It is significant to mention that in the group of sixty students, only a few students answered the question in relation to *supervision*. The larger number of students modified the question as to language and wrote in terms of *What I expect of My Supervisor*. Quite frequently one hears the phrase "Supervision is People"—evidently this translation seemed appropriate to the students! Two of their papers are quoted in their entirety. The contributions of the others have been combined into several paragraphs to avoid unnecessary repetition. Marilyn wrote:

WHAT I EXPECT OF MY COUNTY SUPERVISOR

Supervisor is a term too cold for the person whom I know that I shall have for my consultant and guide! Teaching is a warm, vital profession and I know that those in higher positions in education will be warm, vital people, to whom I can turn for constructive criticism, counsel and advice of all kinds pertaining to my work as a teacher.

My supervisor will be a *welcome* visitor in my classroom and will add to the light and warmth already present in the atmosphere that is to be found in a classroom full of busy, happy people. She will tell me what she likes about my ways and procedures with children. She will have suggestions as to how I can work more effectively. These suggestions I shall usually honor and follow because her wealth of experience adds value and strength to her suggestions. But, if I should differ with her viewpoint she will listen graciously and we will, together, work out a solution.

On a gray day when Johnny got only one division problem right, when Susie missed every spelling word, when NO one can tell me why it rains, I hope that on that day my supervisor will come to visit in my classroom and with words of encouragement she will revitalize us all, teacher and children and the whole group, children and teacher, will radiate her presence and we shall all feel that we have grown a bit.

My greatest expectation is that this supervisor will have a real interest in me, and confidence in me, too. Through this relationship I will grow as a teacher and my work with children will be oh! so much more effective!

These are high and idealistic standards for a supervisor to meet, but, even though I have had few contacts with supervisors as I write this, I know that most supervisors fulfill these expectations to the letter.

The following paper came in as an extra and unsigned paper. It was written by "Anonymous" and reveals much:

Dear Supervisor:

You will never receive this letter because it will not be sent. Many such "phantom" letters are probably addressed to you each year by young teachers who are about to begin their work with children in a classroom.

As I come to the end of my college training for teaching, I approach the opening of school, MY school with mixed emotions. I am excited and eager, enthusiastic and full of enthusiasm. I am so eager to try my wings in my chosen profession—teaching, and it seemed as though this day would never come. At the same time I have many qualms and fears.

I am not really afraid of teaching, although I know that it is a big job. I think that I am not really afraid of the children whom I shall face on that first day of school. I seem to be afraid, at least a little, as I think of YOU. You know so very much and I know so very little. You have had the best teacher of all—experience. I am inexperienced, new and untried. I keep asking myself questions about you:

Will you remember that I have excellent *training*, but no experience?

Will you be able to like and trust me as a person?

Will we work as fellow adults?

Will you really understand when the children and I are not working perfectly that we, the children and I need your help and guidance?

When you are in my classroom—shall I "discipline" a child while you are in the room? And do our ideas on discipline agree?

Will you sit in my classroom with an unsmiling and impassive face? Some experienced teachers have said that supervisors do so, I hope that you will not.

I want to believe that the supervisor who will be my supervisor remembers that she was once a beginning teacher; that my supervisor probably knows my needs better than I do, myself; that my supervisor knows how and when to guide me away from pitfalls when this is possible and will help to see how I prevent some problems from developing; that my supervisor knows how to tell me when I have made mistakes and will offer suggestions as to how I can correct these mistakes, and I hope that my supervisor can tell me of my errors in such a way that I shall be challenged to do my best, but I will not be discouraged.

Finally, dear supervisor, will you accept me in the way that I shall always try to accept children—knowing their strengths and their shortcomings but working ever toward helping them to develop their best potentialities? This is a lot to ask, I know. I promise to do my part, but I want and need your help.

Yours sincerely,
A Teacher Who Will be Meeting you in 1958

At the beginning of the school year, September 1958, "Marilyn" and "Anonymous" and all the others will, indeed, be meeting their supervisors as they, the young people who articulated their

aspirations at the close of their junior year in college, greet children in their own classes for the first time. "Marilyn" and "Anonymous" have been quoted verbatim and their supervisors may read a direct message. What of the others? What do these young people really hope and expect to find in their supervisors? Over and over again in the student responses are repeated the following important words: maturity, integrity, gentleness mixed with decisiveness, constructiveness in suggestions and in criticism, honesty, enthusiasm for teaching, impartiality, forthrightness, warmth and outgoingness, understanding, acceptance, the ability to work harmoniously with people, the ability to challenge, the ability to listen graciously, the ability to smile and to laugh, especially in some of the rough places—all these and a few more attributes besides!

In their enthusiastic and buoyant eagerness to perform their best services for children, these teachers-to-be have set high standards for the supervisors with whom they will work. They go forth, in less than a year, into the keeping of supervisors. As one student said, "At the end of my first year, I hope that I shall be able to say to my supervisor 'Thank you for a wonderful year of growing. You have helped me to do my best with the children.'" The task of the supervisor is surely a task for persons happily equipped with Super Vision.

Supervisors Help Orient *the* New Teachers

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TODAY'S SCHOOLS and communities expect much of their teachers. The task of the classroom teacher has perhaps never been more complex and never more important than it is today. Fortunately, greater expectations for the classroom teacher are in most school-communities being accompanied by sensible recognition that these teachers need help in becoming all that we wish them to be. We are increasingly aware that our expectations for teachers can be realized only as administrative and instructional leaders (and parents, too) become active partners in the in-service growth of teachers.

Teachers as well as Children Need Orientation

Just as teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of helping children make happy, satisfying adjustments in school, so principals and supervisors are showing a growing concern for the period of adjustment and orientation of new teachers. Without an organized plan for induction the problems of the new teacher can easily be overlooked or remain undiscovered during the critical period when habits and attitudes which will largely determine professional success or failure are being formed. Just as an effective program of education must be based on

the needs of children, so an effective plan for orienting new teachers must be based on the problems and needs of these beginning teachers. The discernment of these needs and a deliberate program for meeting them is an important responsibility of school persons with supervisory responsibilities. This is particularly true in these times of great expansion and mobility when each year the new teachers often represent a fourth or even a third of the total teaching staff of a school.

Any plan of working together for orientation of the new teachers implies an interaction of all the participants involved. Each must bring something to the situation. The school has the right to expect that the new teacher will bring (1) a *philosophy* involving the part he has in a great profession, how he will be a part of professional solutions, certain convictions, a belief in the unlimited possibilities in learning and a way of working with others; (2) some experiences with subject matter, in living in our world and in working with people; (3) some *knowledge* of child growth and development; and (4) a *desire* to grow and succeed on the job.

"Getting to Know You"

At the time of appointment and before school opens, the principal must

help the new teacher get acquainted with school organization and policy, with his general and specific duties and responsibilities, with information pertaining to students in his classes, with equipment and materials of the school, and with the school plant and the community. Many times a handbook containing all the pertinent information about a given school helps serve this purpose. Meetings for new teachers before school opens often help give security in the new undertaking. Experienced teachers of the school can assist here.

Lack of personal comfort can interfere with teaching, therefore assistance in obtaining suitable housing may be of first importance. The school may well have lists of approved houses, rooms and apartments available. Having teachers or patrons take the new teachers to investigate housing helps. They may also aid in finding church affiliations.

"Belonging" in a faculty is most important to new teachers. Some ways of bringing this about may be social affairs to get acquainted, planning week-end activities, *assigning members of the staff to act as friendly counselors to the new teachers, seeing that each new teacher is invited and escorted to the first luncheon, writing welcoming letters, sponsoring tours of the community, getting civic and social clubs to invite new teachers as guests, providing special publicity to local papers about new teachers or getting the editor to write a special editorial.*

Professional Help Needed Too

Just as planning to help a teacher feel a belonging socially is important, it is even more important to feel a professional belonging. A principal has a great responsibility here. Whenever a begin-

ner feels the need for help, it should be given by the principal or some staff member. To the experienced teacher these needs may seem small but to the novice they at times seem insurmountable. Plans to help the new teacher—in setting up her room for work, in making out first day reports, in finding bulletins, pamphlets, books, etc. for use in her classes, in understanding the background of her children, in interpreting school records—these and many others unique to each school and teacher provide a foundation upon which our expectations for new teachers can soon be realized.

The new teacher has a right to expect certain help from her principal and supervisor such as (1) what is expected of her in her specific job, (2) materials to work with in her classes (even if the new books have not come), (3) help with a plan for the first day, the first week, (4) the scope and flexibility of her course of study, (5) the in-service opportunities for professional growth, (6) how to get various kinds of professional assistance, (7) time for conferences, (8) plans to meet parents of her children, (9) *how one is expected to work with other teachers*, (10) *routes of the school*.

While these problems seem to come all at once at the beginning of the year, they are but an initial surge in the expression of teacher needs which should be expected throughout the year. Gradually all fall into place in the mosaic of a good teaching-learning environment and what may have seemed an overwhelming—even frightening—experience at first, is gradually seen as a challenge to become a truly professional teacher. Note in the words of a beginning teacher how this seems to come about as he finds his professional role

with his principal and supervisor. Each has status as a professional peer. The evidences of teacher growth are clear—as are the evidences of supervisory leadership in the stimulation of this growth.

A Beginning Teacher is Helped

September 8

Lincoln Junior High School, here I am! You really look like a good starting point—a fine school, a nice community, top caliber students. I don't feel very confident right now but there are still four days before I have to meet my classes.

This certainly seems like a nice faculty. What a surprise seeing three teachers I had met at State University. Well, Mr. Harper told me he picked his staff with the idea that we work together and I believe we will. Speaking of Mr. Harper, he certainly looks different—much bigger, and with a certain aura about him. He looks and acts like a principal should. I remember when I last saw him at his home in June; he was wearing shorts then. It's a practical outfit. I wear shorts around home myself, but I wonder what my class would think if I wore them to school. Oh well, it wasn't how he looked that first time that impressed me—it was what he said. Let's see, I had sent out nine applications, had four interviews and two job offers from two county systems. This was the first man I had talked with who really seemed proud and enthusiastic about his school.

Yes, Lincoln Junior High students were first in English skills when they reached high school . . . fine students . . . interested parents . . . a wonderful yearbook . . . we want teachers who are willing to teach all the students . . . we don't want average teachers . . . provide for individual differences . . . lesson plans . . . willingness to

learn . . . supervision . . . I'll be in to see you and help you . . . we want good teachers doing their best.

Lincoln Junior High was the school for me and I felt proud to be chosen one of the staff.

September 14

This is it. I want so much to make a good impression. Am I ready? Sure we had meetings and much was said, but am I ready?

8:55-9:10. Meet with last year's homeroom section. Call roll and tell students their new section number and where to report. If time permits, go through the regular opening exercises.

9:11. Dismiss to new section without bell.

9:15-10:13. Homeroom Period.

10:17-11:11. Periods 1 and 2.

1. Meet new students. 2. Call Roll.
3. Pass out schedule forms and have them copy new schedule from the board.
4. Pass out Daily Program cards to be filled out in duplicate. (a) send one copy direct to office. (b) other copy goes home for parents' signature.
5. Indicate standards you expect students to maintain.
6. Make an assignment—probably written as an autobiography.

Let's see then, periods 3 and 4 about the same, then lunch, playground duty, work-plan period and sixth period science. I guess I'll last the day.

Whew!! What a day! What a narrow escape when I almost fell off the chair showing the class about Galileo and the speed of falling objects. I think also one of the high points was Mr. Harper's letter which was delivered sixth period. Let me read it again.

"HOWDY!

How are things going?

This is your first year of teaching at Lincoln and you are going to be a *good*

teacher, but when you face that classroom full of new pupils and when you sit and work with so many teachers with experience at Lincoln—do you have a few little butterflies in your stomach?

Maybe it will help you to know that all *good* teachers have a few little butterflies in their stomachs when they face new classes. Teaching is a big job and no matter how much experience a teacher may have, when he measures himself against the vastness of his opportunity, the good teacher is humble.

When you meet with more experienced teachers, the supervisor or administrators, are you wondering what they will think of all the exciting ideas and methods you think you know? Are you wondering whether to try the ideas or to imitate the teacher across the hall or next door? Use your good ideas and methods, they are your contribution to the school and they are wanted. Remember, tho, the bottle directions, "shake well before using." Use these early weeks to plan and organize well and then use the things which you are sure you can make work in the way you are sure you can make them work best.

Learn to know your pupils, the routine of the school and the community. As you learn them shake and sift your ideas about teaching. Some of your ideas will settle down to the bottom of the bottle into unimportance, others will stay on top because they are educational cream. Use these *top ideas* in your classroom and evaluate their effectiveness in terms of the objectives you set up.

It may help if you don't talk too soon or too much about *how* you are going to teach. When your ideas and methods are sound, the results will soon speak for themselves. Many a good, sound and advanced method or idea in teaching has died a premature death, because it was hatched in the teacher's room instead of the classroom and was first exposed to more experienced teachers who

killed it as fast as they could with all the reasons why it couldn't possibly work. They don't see the possibilities and *they* couldn't make the new idea work so in *their* thinking it won't work. Beware of these teachers who are in a rut and resist *anything* new. They are educational murderers and they will resist and murder any *new* idea.

It is easier if you don't try to do everything the first month or even the first semester. Good ideas keep and sometimes improve with thought before use—and I hope you'll teach a long time, so you can use all the new ideas you have or get.

How are all the little butterflies now? Much quieter, I hope.

F. N. Harper"

September 15

Oh, Mr. Harper wants to see me during my work plan period today. I wonder what he wants. He's not wasting anytime in seeing his new teachers.

So this is Mrs. Marsh, the supervisor. I've heard about her. Didn't expect to see "the Hawk" and "the Eagle" together so soon. Hmm-m, those are fierce birds, but these two seem like friendly people. Do I have lesson plans? Yes sir, here they are. Now I wonder why he's frowning. Oh, these are good—but—You're happy to see I am planning, but these are *teacher* lesson plans. Oh, I understand, you want *student* lesson plans. Yes sir, you put it down and I'll be glad to follow.

—Student Lesson Plan—

I *Problem*—State the problem you're currently to study in question form and so the pupil will understand it.

II *Pupil Objectives*—To learn . . . to understand . . . to broaden . . . to improve . . . to develop . . . to recognize . . . to become . . . Make

these specific so that the student can see what he is to accomplish.

III *Pupil Activities* — Making . . . Drawing . . . Selecting . . . Reading . . . Taking . . . Writing . . . Participating . . . Discussing . . . Giving.

These pupil activities should be varied enough so that they will challenge the good students, yet there should be some for the average student and some activities for the slow learner. It is here that we can provide for individual differences.

IV *Resources* — These can be books, movies, film strips, personal experiences, or whatever can be used to help the student accomplish his objectives.

V *Evaluation*—How can you and the student be sure that these objectives have been accomplished. Evaluation should tell you whether it's in the form of tests, behavior changes or whatever.

Now I see what was wrong with my plans. They just had what *I* was going to do. With this type of plan the student will know what *he's* studying, what *he* wants to get out of the problem, how *he's* going to accomplish this, what material *he's* to use, and then he should know whether he has accomplished these things or not.

Oh, yes, I understand now why each day I should put in some prominent place the problem and pupil objectives.

Yes sir, tonight I'll make this type of lesson plan and try it out tomorrow.

September 16

Well, I'm glad I'm doing it right now. Mr. Harper and Mrs. Marsh seemed pleased with my lesson plans. Now he wants me to start planning beyond just the next day. First by the week, then by

units. It was nice of them to thank me for coming in and now—Ha!—they want to return the favor by coming in next week to see if I can apply those lesson plans. Well, I've got all weekend to plan. I wonder whether they'll be in Monday or Tuesday?

September 21

I sure hope they come in today. This is really a good lesson plan. It has variety, has pupil-teacher planning, provides for individual differences and should go over big.

What a let-down! I wasn't visited today. Now tomorrow they probably will come in when I'm showing a filmstrip. Well, I'm not going to change. This makes sense as it is.

September 22

At last they've gone! I nearly choked on a word when they came in. Well, I had lesson plans and used them. I *would* have the screen up in front of the problem and pupil objectives on the board. I hope it didn't look too obvious when I lowered the screen. I felt silly pulling the map up and down, but I did want to illustrate a point. Well, the kids were good and it was a good filmstrip which tied together what we were studying. Now 5th period I have a conference with Harper and Marsh.

Boy, they are sure wonderful people! They said so many nice things. They made a few suggestions too, but now I'm inspired. It would be terrible to disappoint them by a poor teaching performance. I hope they come again soon. I'll show them. So this is supervision? Not bad at all.

How We Learn: Implications *for* Supervision

By GRACE L. ADAMS
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Life is a Learning and Living Process

EVERY HUMAN BEING learns through experiences that seem important to him. These experiences are directed toward the accomplishment of his basic need to become all that he may become as a person and as a member of his society. Living and learning are the active processes through which this major purpose of life is achieved. The individual learns to manage his life in a way that keeps his organism healthy and functioning effectively. He learns to control, within limits, his physical environment and to use its resources for gaining varying degrees of security. Through interacting with other people he learns to accept and respect himself and others. With accumulated experiences through time he develops a system of values which become motivating forces in his movement toward reaching the full scope of his potentialities.

The over-all purpose of supervision is to facilitate the living and learning processes. Specifically, supervision is concerned with improving the quality of learning opportunities for pupils, teachers, principals, parents and supervisors. It is a "two-way process" where the supervisor shares knowledge and skills acquired from various sources with all people engaged in the educative pro-

cess and, in so doing, continues to further his own learning. It is the function of all adults concerned with the growth and development of children and youth to assist them to live and learn to the fullest measure of their abilities and capacities. The task then is to develop our human resources as individuals and as participating members of a group; to achieve goals and purposes so necessary for effective living.

Each Individual Learns in His Own Way

It is doubtful that anyone knows exactly how another person learns, for the ways of learning are many and varied. If one accepts learning as "change in behavior," then all factors operating to produce change need to be considered. The learning process is influenced by the functioning of the learner's body, his physical environment, cultural setting, accumulated past experiences, the immediate situation, and the meanings the anticipated experience holds for him. Since the learner is a feeling, thinking, acting organism, he behaves in a fashion that takes into account the multiplicity and inter-relatedness of all causal factors of behavior.

There are various theories of how learning takes place which have been developed through the years by exten-

sive research. Perhaps these theories can be viewed as representing a continuum from "trial and error" experimentation to the consideration of the whole individual, i.e., every way in which he behaves—physically, socially, mentally, emotionally. In actual operation, it appears that these theories represent different emphases in the learning process. Trial and error, conditioned-response, insight—all may be viewed as aspects of learning because the individual behaves as a total organism; therefore, learning is a unique process for each individual.

In commenting on the teacher's role in facilitating learning, Prescott states:

"Children cannot be *taught* anything but they are eager to *learn* the facts and skills which seem significant to them. The teacher's tasks then are to maintain conditions that are favorable to learning, to build relationships with and among children which free them to learn, and to provide the experiences through which needed information and skills come to have significance for their pupils. When this is done, children will want to learn what they need to learn and the teacher's job will become that of helping the pupils to find the materials they need, to clarify and inter-relate the meanings they are gaining and to work out effective means of progressively improving the skills they are seeking to acquire. These seem to be the major conclusions now to be drawn from current scientific knowledge about the learning process."¹

This statement summarizes succinctly the role of the teacher. As used in this context "teacher" represents anyone who has the responsibility for guiding learning, and "children" represent those who learn, irrespective of age.

Stated in summary form, some of the major principles of learning seem to be:

- 1) An individual learns what is significant to him.
- 2) The complexity of the learning process and inter-relatedness of multiple factors influence what the individual learns and how he learns.
- 3) The learning process is unique for each individual.
- 4) Learning involves experiences with people and things.
- 5) The learning process can be facilitated and encouraged by creating a comfortable as well as rich and varied physical and social environment.
- 6) A full measure of success, a feeling of accomplishment and of personal worth accelerate the learning process.

Understanding and acceptance of these principles influence the ways teachers and supervisors work together to aid one another in developing their own potential and in facilitating learning in the lives of all children.

Knowing About the Learner

Living as we do in a cultural setting marked by continual change in which rural, urban and regional differences, family mobility and the rapidly changing world conditions affect the lives of each individual, the need for understanding the learner as being affected by and attempting to adjust to these changes is of major importance to the learning processes. The efforts of both the supervisor and the teacher may be directed toward discovering ways of collecting, organizing and working with this information to provide new insight into the forces operating upon the lives

1. Prescott, Daniel A., *The Child in the Educative Process*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957.

of children. Child study programs throughout the country have helped both supervisors and teachers realize the significance of the use of this material as an effective means for understanding the motives that direct learning and behavior. Knowledge about the child as an organism, his environment, his interests in people and things, his concept of the physical world, his feelings about himself and other people, and the goals he sets for himself, are all vital sources of information necessary to understanding human growth and development. Through this study, the supervisor and the teacher together develop skill in defining the curriculum of experiences based on the goals, interests and purposes of the learner. Recognizing the natural curiosities of children as evidenced in their collecting of rocks or butterflies, or in their enthusiasm for a foreign car may provide the basis for subsequent intensive studies of the nature of the physical world or of the interdependence of people evidenced by the exchange of goods and products. Learning is discovering, organizing information, experimenting, testing and coming to some general conclusions.

Implications for Supervision

If supervision is that type of service which helps to solve problems toward the end that the quality of living for all who are affected improves, then learning is bound to be taking place. The supervisor who looks upon learning as growth of the learner will:

1. *Accept and recognize the dignity and worth of every human being at all times.* Acceptance is essential to the learning process, and implies: a) having a faith in the other persons ability to grow and

develop to his fullest; b) a valuing of him for himself; c) getting to know him—his likes, dislikes, interests, hobbies, aptitudes, goals, desires and ambitions. For teachers and supervisors this means a personal interest in each other; engaging in a variety of activities such as tours of the surrounding area, theatre parties, art exhibits, concerts, lectures, and others. Through activities of this type teachers and supervisors have an opportunity to become acquainted in an informal way and to learn to understand and respect one another. Such a relationship between supervisor and teacher will be reflected in the "climate" of the classroom and will enable children to develop more effective relationships with one another. Surely, a teacher who has had such acceptance will in turn be able to value the dignity and worth of each child.

2. *Expect and accept multiple and complex causes of behavior.* Each person, from his individual background, brings a backlog of experiences that are unique to him. His past patterns of behavior, his beliefs, cultural expectancies, family relationships, his own biological processes, and his ability to relate to others have all helped in forming this uniqueness.
3. *Realize that changing patterns of behavior means an altering of attitudes and goals.* The changing of behavior is not accomplished in a moment but requires time and nurturing. Learning implies basic understanding and understandings are not gained by

osmosis. Too often teachers have been expected to have the qualities of a chameleon and change or alter their ways of working overnight. The supervisor needs to recognize that the learning of new patterns of behavior attitudes and/or values is accomplished by a slow, slow process, and steps toward growth must be taken one at a time. This period of waiting for growth to take place can be very frustrating for the supervisor and often becomes a threat to his own security. This is truly a time when patience is a virtue.

4. *Encourage experimentation.* The beginning teacher enters the profession with many new teaching procedures. This teacher is anxious to experiment and to teach in a pattern that may be different from the established practices of the school. The supervisor can "pave the way" for the beginning teacher to use new teaching procedures by helping other teachers, principals and parents to understand these new procedures. For, with understanding comes a more ready acknowledgment of the right of a teacher to improve his skill through experimentation.
5. *Work toward building healthy relationships between all concerned.* Supervisors, teachers, children, administrators, custodians, parents and members of the community are all members of a cooperative team working for the betterment of education. One of the many roles played by the supervisor is that of keeping

this a smoothly working team, of ironing out difficulties or problems which may arise, of helping to establish rapport among all the members.

6. *Have and live up to a code of professional ethics.* Many teachers have need of a "wailing wall," someone on whom they may pour out their woes in strictest confidence. This implies that the supervisor is a person of integrity, one who keeps confidential all personal information about any teacher and thereby safeguards each teacher from humiliation and loss of self respect.

In summary, as a professional leader of teachers, the supervisor should establish a "climate" conducive to learning on the part of the teacher. He needs to build rapport—to develop an interest in the teacher as a person; a feeling of mutual acceptance no matter how ideas may differ; a belief in the integrity and worth of the individual; and, empathy for the teacher's problems. This implies that the supervisor is able and willing to accept each teacher where he is and help him to move forward, step by step.

With teachers and supervisors working together to promote mutual personal and professional growth the accruing learning will include specific knowledge, skills, appreciations, attitudes and values appropriate for the important task of educating the future citizens of America. Knowledge and understanding of themselves and others and of appropriate learning experiences suited to pupil's maturity levels, are vigorously sought. Skills necessary for effective living and learning in a democratic society are essential to teachers, pupils, parents and supervisors. Of equal im-

portance, however, is the philosophy of life which teachers develop, for their attitudes, beliefs and values are reflected in numerous ways as they work with pupils. A teacher's philosophy of life is, in final analysis, his philosophy of education. The motives or values that guide his life are rich indeed if they

are based on a deep appreciation of every human being and faith in each person's ability to learn and develop. To promote an increased harmony or unity of every individual with his physical and social world is the true meaning of effective teaching and learning—and thus of supervision as well.

International Reading Association

"Reading for Effective Living" has been chosen as the theme for the Third Annual Conference of the International Reading Association in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, on May 9 and 10, 1958. Meetings will be held at the Milwaukee Auditorium, and the Conference Headquarters will be located in the Hotel Schroeder.

The programs at this conference are being planned to fit the interests and meet the needs of several groups—teachers at all levels (including college), supervisors of reading and general supervisors, school administrators, parents, and others interested in the teaching of reading. Each of these groups will find stimulation and gain information on current practices and issues in the use of reading for effective living. Sections are also being arranged for those who are specifically interested in remedial and clinical teaching as well as those who are particularly interested in the vision problems of children.

Additional information and registration instructions may be obtained from the IRA office, 5835 S. Kimbark Ave., Chicago 37, Ill.

Supervision *as* Leadership in Curriculum Development

By LOIS M. CLARK

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National Education Association*

AS A SUPERVISOR works with teachers, she has two equally important concerns and responsibilities. She wants to be helpful in real and direct ways to individual teachers and schools in relation to problems they face and services they wish to develop. She is equally responsible to the school system as a whole, to make certain that the total program is consistent with the broad goals and purposes which the community, through its school leaders, sets for itself. Keeping an effective balance between individual school and teacher initiative on the one hand and system-wide program development on the other is at once the problem and the never ending challenge which makes the supervisor's job a creative and demanding one.

As she considers how best to accomplish this, the supervisor is aware of many points at which she must work to keep satisfactory balance. For instance,

. . . What is to be taught in a particular school or classroom must be determined, on the one hand, in relation to the needs of the individual learners who make up the group and, on the other, with full consideration of the needs of community. Furthermore, "needs of the community" must take into account not

only what is unique and distinctive in the local community but also what is reflected from the larger community and the world beyond.

. . . Likewise, the learning experiences to be arranged for the pupils of a particular school or classroom must draw upon the meaningful resources of the immediate area, and must also reach out to draw in appropriate resources from our total civilization.

. . . As to responsibility for determining what shall be taught and how the needed learning experiences shall be arranged for a particular group of pupils, this is shared by the individual classroom teacher at the one extreme, and by the school system, which as an arm of the state holds legal responsibility at the other.

While the individual teacher or school holds direct responsibility for identifying its own problems and potentialities and developing ways to meet them, help is usually needed that can be provided most effectively through system-wide leadership. The ways in which such leadership can best be offered depend in part on the role of the individ-

ual teacher. In this country, the teacher typically has considerable freedom and responsibility in shaping the work of his classroom. We expect him to be a self-directed person who, under ideal circumstances, brings to his job and his profession such qualifications as these:

- He knows and accepts the general goals we hold for public education in the United States.
- He understands the basic growth needs of children, especially at the developmental levels at which he works, and is disposed to grow in such understanding as he continues to work with children and youth.
- He is well informed with respect to the general scope and sequence of curriculum experiences considered appropriate in view of the educational goals we hold and what is known about child growth needs.
- He knows how to determine distinctive needs and potentialities of individual children and adapt instruction to those needs.
- He is broadly informed regarding the resources, institutions, and values which are important to our heritage and knows how to identify and utilize in his teaching the appropriate human, natural, and institutional resources available to him.

Even though the teacher brings such initial qualifications as these to his classroom experience, he should have guidance in fitting what he does into the total program of a particular school system. Furthermore, he has a right to expect that the school system which employs him will help him continue to

grow as a teacher. The key person in helping to satisfy such expectations is usually some person who carries supervisory responsibility.

In considering how supervision provides leadership in curriculum development, it is important to consider how supervision functions. The 1949 Yearbook Committee of the NEA Department of Rural Education had this to say about it:

“ . . . Supervision is not the sole responsibility of any one person. It is a function that is carried on by many people, in many ways, at many different times in many different places. There should be one or more persons whose primary responsibility is to make it possible for supervision to take place. Everything that takes place, and everyone who helps things to take place to help children grow, becomes a part of supervision.”¹

It would be difficult to separate work done in order to stimulate or facilitate curriculum development from other aspects of supervisory leadership. Curriculum, when thought of as the actual experiences of each pupil which are affected by the school, is broad and all-encompassing. Anything which contributes to pupil growth and learning for which the school assumes some responsibility is appropriately regarded as curriculum development, even though its immediate purpose may have been in-service growth of teachers, the solution of some specific instructional problem, or the provision of helpful teaching materials. Conversely, work directed specifically to curriculum development,

1. Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association. *The Rural Supervisor at Work*. Yearbook 1949. Washington, D. C.: The Department. p. 12.

if suitably done, contributes to in-service teacher growth and to other supervisory aims and purposes.

Even though supervision as leadership in curriculum development is hard to distinguish from supervision in general, it is possible to take a broad look at how supervision helps to develop or improve curriculum patterns and offerings in ways that are not so easily possible for the individual teacher or school, without such help. From another viewpoint, it is possible to identify ways in which the school system is helped by cooperative work of individual teachers and schools, through supervision, in its task of keeping abreast of the curriculum needs of the community as a whole.

How does the supervisor go about keeping an effective balance between individual school and teacher initiative and system-wide program development? Obviously she does it through a wide range of day-in, day-out activities. But these activities are not haphazard. Supervision works for wholeness in the instructional program — wholeness in the total curriculum of the school system in relation to the community's needs, and wholeness for individual pupils through appropriate work in each classroom. It is a responsibility of the supervisor to carry a broad but orderly picture of the growth needs of children and of the school system's instructional goals for them. She must hold in mind the broad pattern of the curriculum and be sensitive to points at which changes may be desirable.

Using this broad frame of reference, the supervisor keeps an alert eye for what might be called the teachable mo-

ment, striving to use—or to stimulate—such opportunities and to help create situations in which needed growth can take place. How she works to do this and how she fosters growth once it is stimulated is a fundamental part of the qualified supervisor's "kit of tools." In general, supervision, in the person of a supervisor, works at four or more main tasks.

Supervision helps to provide means by which individual teachers can continue in their efforts to understand children.

The broad instructional goals of a school system can only be accomplished through the achievements of individual pupils. Whatever helps the teacher translate broad knowledge of children's growth patterns and needs into specific understanding of individual children contributes significantly to curriculum developments. The importance and complexity of this undertaking is indicated in this statement from a UNESCO report:

"We are still relatively ignorant of techniques necessary to insure that men and women from different social and educational levels will assimilate psychological knowledge, modify their own attitudes, prejudices, and behavior to children. But it is becoming clear that one means to this end is the discussion group which systematically explores, from both the home and school standpoints, concrete examples of child behavior. Such groups should be small . . . , informal, and, as soon as possible, conducted in an atmosphere of complete frankness. . . ."²

2. Wall, W. D. *Education and Mental Health*. (Quoted by Howard Lane in *Children*, Vol. 4, No. 1, January-February 1957, p. 30-31.)

Supervision helps to identify significant community factors and their effects on curriculum needs.

Faith Smitter, after commenting that "children differ even though they grow up in the same neighborhood and the same home," writes: "Sociologists, through studies of community life, have shown that communities develop unique personalities and requirements just as people do. . . . Little consideration is yet given in the planned curriculum to the needs of the community whose life does not conform to the dominant pattern of modern rural life."³

While individual teachers and schools use their own opportunities to learn about the community, the school system can be expected to conduct activities directed to understanding the community's "personality" and development and to keeping abreast of changes, as these affect the goals and procedures of the curriculum. Supervision can do much to involve teachers and individual schools both in the study of the community and in planning how to take the information gained into account through curriculum adaptations.

Supervision helps teachers and schools to identify and use appropriate instructional resources and materials.

There are resources in every community—human, material and institutional—which schools need to use to develop understanding of the world in which we live, the things we value, the problems we face, and how we go about solving those problems. In order to help pupils relate themselves to their communities, teachers must know these resources for making learning direct and

meaningful. They must also have access to important resources which may not be available in the immediate community. To help teachers know such resources, understand their significance, and use them wisely requires system-wide effort as well as individual initiative. Supervision helps to relate the individual teacher's effort to determine what is useful in a particular classroom to system-wide effort to identify what is of general importance. Supervision also makes it easier for the individual teacher and school to identify and secure the resources and materials not available in the immediate environment.

Supervision helps all persons concerned to evaluate curriculum practices and development.

In evaluation, as in other aspects of leadership for curriculum development, supervision has two chief points of reference: Concern for the growth and development of individual children, and concern for the growth and development of the total school in relation to the community it serves.

Curriculum development is never really completed. There is always something more to be understood about children's needs or some change in the community which makes a new demand on the schools. Teachers and others who work in schools continue to change with respect to the goals they set for themselves. New materials and resources become available to enrich or simplify learning. Day-to-day growth takes place best when all school personnel, including parents and pupils, continue to ask themselves, with respect to what they are doing, such questions as these: What have we accomplished in terms of

3. Smitter, Faith. "Our Changing Rural Economy and Its Implications for Education." *California Journal of Elementary Education*, May 1950. p. 232-9.

what we started out to do? What growth has taken place? How far has this experience helped us to progress? How much better do we work together? Is this the most important use to be made of this time? How important is this proposed new activity?

Inherent in all this is the recognition that supervision as leadership is not something that is done *to* people. Rather it is something that is achieved when people work together willingly, with

some common acceptance of the goals they seek and readiness to search out best ways to achieve those goals. Supervision which stimulates when stimulation is needed, which helps teachers and children to do better what they want to do, and which helps all concerned to work together to improve instruction is perhaps best identified by the quality of the human relationships which emerge. It is good leadership when everyone who is a part of it grows.

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Effective Human Relations: Key to Good Supervision

By CLARENCE A. NEWELL

*Professor of Educational Administration
University of Maryland*

THE MOST SIGNIFICANT thing that can be said about human relations in supervision is also the most dangerous. It is as follows. Basic to a supervisor's effectiveness are his relationships with other people; these relationships with others are determined largely by his feelings about himself, and hence, by his feelings toward others. The foregoing statement is significant because it expresses the essence of human relations in supervision. It is dangerous because it may very likely be misinterpreted and thus invite serious and unintended consequences.

One supervisor publicly told the following story about himself. He had obtained a new position, and went to the community late in August in order to locate housing for himself and his wife. As he walked down the street, a man greeted him cordially. "Good morning, Mr. X!" exclaimed the local resident. "We are delighted to know that you are going to be on our school staff this year."

The supervisor who tells the story adds: "But he didn't fool me one bit! I knew this man was friendly only because he sells insurance. He thought I was a good prospect. His trying to be friendly really made me sore!"

What does this reaction tell us about this supervisor? Was he right? Perhaps. But he seems to have overlooked the possibility that the man might simply have

felt friendly. Or perhaps the man considered the supervisor to be a good insurance prospect and also really felt friendly.

Would a sequel to this story surprise you? Recently this same supervisor walked into a classroom, and after observing the class at work is reported to have announced: "Children, I can see that you are wasting your time. I'll teach the class for awhile now to demonstrate what you *should* be doing."

Would you like to work for this supervisor? Do you think that he and the teachers would really like each other? Would he have "pets"? Would he be able constructively to utilize criticism directed toward a program with which he might feel closely identified?

Good Human Relations at Work

A man who is now a successful supervisor in a well-known school system exhibited a different way of relating to other people. This man was appointed to do some intensive supervisory work with a few teachers needing special help. Some of these teachers were inexperienced—teachers in their first year of teaching. Several had taught more than twenty years. The supervisor was an experienced teacher with no previous experience in supervision.

The supervisor said later that he wondered at first what he should tell a

group of teachers to do. He decided that he would not try to dictate any particular course of action. Instead, he told the teachers that he could spend a certain amount of time in their classrooms each month, and that during that time he would be glad to help any children needing special help, or help the teacher in any way possible.

During these early visits, most of the supervisor's time was spent in helping individual children with difficulties. While the teacher worked with the class as a whole, the supervisor helped individual children having special problems. This procedure led naturally at the end of each class period to a discussion of the learning difficulties being experienced by these children. As suggestions developed, the supervisor tried to help each teacher obtain the materials and resources for working them out. To the supervisor's surprise and pleasure, within a few weeks one of the teachers telephoned him to say that several of the teachers he had been visiting had discovered that they had some problems in common. Would he be willing to meet with a small group at the home of one of the teachers to discuss these problems? The supervisor met with the teachers, and thus began a weekly discussion group participated in by teachers and supervisor.

Not all the teachers were so positive in their reactions. Some were resentful that the school system now provided supervision whereas they felt that formerly they had been free to go their own ways. These negative reactions were accepted by the supervisor as being entirely natural—they were matters of concern, but not reasons for him to feel guilty or afraid.

When this supervisor was told that he was being severely criticized by a

visiting consultant, he went directly to the consultant and told him what had been reported. The consultant explained what he had actually said, and taken in the context of the situation where the remarks had been made, the consultant's criticisms were clearly impersonal and constructive in nature. The discussion of the situation by the supervisor and consultant resulted in their becoming better friends. Rather than disliking the consultant on the basis of an exaggerated report, the supervisor had taken action which had cleared the air and had resulted in a growing friendship.

Feelings Affect Actions

These illustrations have been included here to illustrate a basic element in human relations.

The way we feel about (perceive) a situation determines our behavior in that situation.

If we were to analyze human nature further, we would discover that the way we feel about a situation is determined largely by the way we feel about ourselves. If we really like ourselves, we like other people. And if we distrust ourselves, we tend to distrust others. Thus many of our reactions to other people come from within ourselves.

A supervisor's feelings affect his relationships both with individuals and also with groups. The different ways in which a supervisor works with people can be classified in three main categories. A supervisor who is generally ineffective can be said to provide *laissez-faire* leadership; that is, he leaves the other people alone and provides neither interference nor help. A supervisor who manipulates other people or forces them to do what he wants is providing *autocratic* leadership. A supervisor who

really likes people and has faith in them can be expected to provide *democratic* leadership.

Putting Differences to Work

Because a democratic supervisor really likes and has faith in other people, he desires a situation in which every person can develop as a happy and maturing person. He does not leave the matter to chance, however, for he knows that conflicts in the interests and purposes of even persons of good faith are bound to arise. The democratic supervisor therefore seeks to help others learn to resolve successfully the endless series of problems which arise in human relationships whenever people are working together. A democratic supervisor feels that he has the right to promote his own point-of-view, and by the same token, feels it is natural for every other person to promote *his* ideas. He helps others learn that value inheres in every person himself, and since each person is already assured an important place in the group, each is enabled to think more objectively about the question at hand rather than needing to prove his worth by defending a particular point-of-view with which he feels identified. Thus a paradox; in a democratic situation respect for every personality encourages each person to advance his own ideas, yet tends also to increase the flexibility in personality which makes possible the utilization of differing points-of-view in arriving at group consensus.

What About You?

Has this article suggested to you that your human relations mark you as some-

one who is superior to others? Has it caused you to decide to feel more friendly? If your answers are even a partial "yes," the article has done more harm than good; it has promoted a deterioration in your own mental health, and has thus invited the serious and unintended consequences mentioned at the outset.

The article has attempted only to describe human relations in supervision. The basic emotional, moral, and intellectual equipment needed by a supervisor has been implied. No attempt has been made to indicate how a supervisor can learn to be more friendly, or how he can help teachers to become more accepting. It is believed, however, that the point-of-view presented has implications for a supervisor's way of working, and hence for the selection and professional education of supervisors.

If the article has sharpened your interest in the problem of human relations in supervision, it has accomplished its purpose.

The nature of democratic leadership is becoming better understood through scientific findings in fields such as psychology, psychoanalysis (an advanced branch of psychiatry), human development, sociology, and anthropology. New findings in these fields provide a challenge for those of us engaged in educational administration and supervision. We need to discover the implications of these findings for human relations in supervision in order that supervision may be more effective in helping teachers to meet with adequacy the educational demands of a free society.

The Future of Supervision

By ETHEL THOMPSON

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National Education Association

WHAT CAN WE expect of supervision in the future? What will be its emphases? What procedures will be used? What will be its status or reputation with the teachers and administration? What responsibilities in the operation of the schools must supervision assume? These and many other questions arise as we peer into the crystal ball.

There are two ways to approach this topic. One might see this as an opportunity for wishful patching together of dreams provoked by reading. Or it might be the deliberate fitting together of pieces of creative ideas re-shaped by experiences and re-oriented by reading. The product of the latter would not be so trim or eye-catching but its production can be challenging to the creator and possibly a bit provocative to others.

Supervision in education cannot be isolated and considered independently. It is conditioned by research, the personnel involved in teaching-learning, and the society being served by the schools. What significant facts in these areas provide clues in predicting "the future of supervision?"

Signs of the Times

Group processes are paying off. Where democratic processes have been initiated and practiced, individual members of the group have been concerned for the success and progress of the group. There has developed an appreciation of the concomitant benefits to all,

of the success or failure of one member. Painfully for some, but inevitably there is an acceptance of the fact that the future status of each member is dependent on that of the other members.

Conditions for public education are not ideal. Moreover, it is doubtful that within the next decade the problems of financing education, of supply and demand, and of housing can be solved.

The housing problem is more complex than a desk for every child. A recent study on the subject of discipline pointed up a rise in the frequency of behavior problems as the size of classroom groups and number of pupils housed in a school building increase. This is our know-how. On the other hand, money-conscious boards of education have had to consider economy. Overhead operation expenses and initial construction costs are much reduced by planning and constructing one large building rather than two or more small schools.

One need only visit a college placement office for one day in the spring to appreciate the shortage of man power. Thus far, the salaries and prestige offered to college and university graduates by education has not been sufficiently attractive to compete with offers made to these young people by industry. Too often parents and teachers sell the profession short. The former generally accept teaching as an admirable service, and a commendable vocational choice for young people, but in no way worthy

of or desirable for their own off-spring.

Wide-spread criticism of the schools and the continuous fight for funds may be explained satisfactorily in many ways. But to most educators, and too often to the classroom teacher, the principal, the supervisor, and the superintendent, it suggests a lack of faith in school personnel, a suspicion of the ability and even the integrity of the professional practitioners. Creative teaching and leadership in education do not flourish under such conditions.

Education is "big" business. Budgets total some ten billions. Employees number over one million. There is a captive audience of some 32 million children. Our total population are consumers of this big business. It is no small wonder that this potential market is exploited.

Educators have been slow to endorse gadgets and devices, new materials, procedures, and ways of organizing children for learning without deliberate evaluation in terms of the long range goals of education, the established beliefs, and the total educational picture. Over-simplification of a problem with the resulting injudicious pseudo-solution may only increase pressures elsewhere. The real effects of what seemed a very plausible solution may be widespread damage and even a loss of gains previously made.

Television, teacher-aides, merit rating are not panaceas for all shortcomings. An exhaustive treatment of merit rating in the June issue of *The Journal of Teacher Education* emphasizes this conclusion. The report of the Superintendent of the Bay City, Michigan Schools to the city Board of Education on the use of teacher aides in that school system indicates the same conclusion. A recent

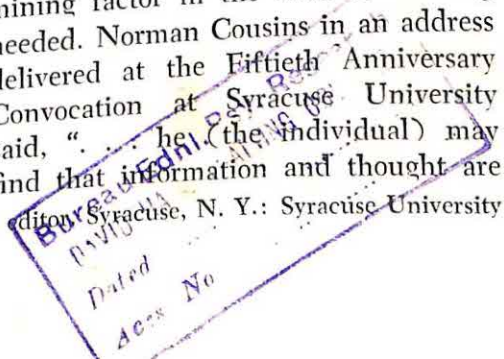
article written by Allen Chase, Creative Director of Owen Murphy Products Incorporated, on the use of television in the classroom reminds us that a high degree of skill in acting and production are required to transfer ideas and understandings over the air waves. Are our educators teachers or actors? Are we expecting too much of a new tool of communication, TV?

Content, method, and procedures in school are being revised. The behavioral sciences are making significant contributions to teaching and learning. Research in how a child learns and why he behaves as he does is challenging teachers to do creative thinking about ways of working with children and means of measuring potential achievements. The individual can be encouraged and guided in learning. But learning itself is the personal achievement of an individual. As David Prescott has said: "Children cannot be taught but they can learn."¹

Really stupendous results have been recorded when children with limited ability as measured by intelligence tests have been motivated to learn. The observation and study of children as they are learning, and of the changes wrought in a child's capacity to achieve when teachers adjust their ways of working with individual children, have transformed teaching and learning in the classroom.

The position to be occupied by man in a democratic society is the determining factor in the kind of learning needed. Norman Cousins in an address delivered at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convocation at Syracuse University said, "... he (the individual) may find that information and thought are

1. *Education* 2000 AD. C. W. Hunnicutt, editor Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1956. P. 52.



not enough. It is one thing to know a fact, another to interpret it and relate it to other facts with order and balance."²

Today's body of knowledge is so complex and so extensive it cannot possibly be conquered in the usual twelve year public school program. There is an increasing recognition of the value of a broad general education, an emphasis on training to think, skill in research, and competence in handling situations. Jobs are changing. As an example, automation is displacing many skilled and semi-skilled workers and creating a terrific demand for technicians. A person's ability to generalize or theorize will contribute toward his rehabilitation and transfer to another type of position.

It would seem from many assurances being offered us that life will soon become a bed of roses; there will be less hours in a work-week, less drudgery, more money, and more time. Does it not seem plausible that some of the children's time in public school should be spent in broadening interests, encouraging hobbies, learning how to explore a multiplicity of individual or small group projects, developing a variety of manual and physical, as well as intellectual skills? An individual's ability to constructively handle free time may well be the determining factor in the quality of his citizenship and his contribution to society.

Working With The Times

A retired teacher in speaking to a group of young teachers suggested that out of her long experience in the classrooms and her love for the teaching profession she would offer as her piece of sage advice, "Sweep with the wind." This is equally applicable for the super-

visor. Noting the signs of the times, working with and not against the tides, the supervisor can be a key person in instruction.

Supervision is concerned with the improvement of teaching-learning in the schools. The individuals designated as supervisors cannot expect to assume a proprietary role in this phase of our school program. Every member of the faculty beginning to appreciate the inevitable tie-up of the rise or fall of an individual with the success or failure of the total school staff of which the individual is a member will assume supervisory responsibilities. Supervision is more than helping an individual teacher have a better social studies unit, or fewer behavior problems. Supervision is a resource, consultant, leadership service for the improvement of learning. Teachers will be consulting each other, pooling their resources, attacking together problems that cut across grade and classroom boundaries.

That member of the staff titled "supervisor" or "consultant" will be charged with extending horizons, coordinating efforts within a particular geographic area, the school district. Someone must pull together the facts being uncovered and clarify the findings. Generalizations must be extracted from the various studies and next steps anticipated. Conditions which would facilitate action must be provided, issues must be isolated and met "head-on." The supervisor is a member of a team, is sought out by fellow team members, the teacher, the principal, the psychologist, the counselor, the doctor. The supervisor no longer works in a vacuum, pitted against the teacher or the principal. He seeks out other team members for help and counsel recognizing that

2. Education 2000 AD. P. 27.

each has a unique contribution to make to the improvement of instruction.

This description of the role of the supervisor has suggested certain procedures. What makes one child work so intently and another flit from task to task or spend long hours in day-dreaming? What makes a child excel in one area and fail in another? What causes one child to achieve far beyond what we can possibly expect and another never to attain his potential? These are the kinds of problems to be solved in the improvement of instruction.

We are beginning to recognize that we can learn much from observation, recording of the facts, and analysis. The supervisor will provide resources and services in perfecting these skills. Creative ideas in leadership and teaching procedures must be stimulated and tried out. Notes must be kept, data compiled, results tabulated, and recommendations extracted from the findings. This is an approach to improving learning and so defines another phase of the supervisor's work. This type of research, designated as action research, employs simple basic skills and may be promoted if teachers are helped to understand its practicality to their daily work. Another task for the supervisor!

In many respects the supervisor's relationship with teachers is comparable to the teacher's work with children. Guidance, encouragement, stimulation and inspiration characterizes the activities, with success depending on the person's empathy.

A supervisor cannot change a teacher, a principal, a child. An individual grows and behaves as a result of the interaction of forces impinging on him day after day. The supervisor works with these forces, human and material, ma-

nipulating conditions and situations to facilitate learning. Material things such as class load, economic conditions, and space are of as much concern to the supervisor as are the teaching materials, textbooks, paper, and other supplies. At other times the supervisor may be dealing with human relations. The assignment of a teacher may very well be the key to his success or failure. A situation may require a conference of the principal, teacher and parent. Possibly the greatest good can be done by arranging some professional experience such as a visitation, attendance at a conference, the loan of a new or beloved book. In all these ways the supervisor is planting ideas and encouraging their growth into creative ways of improving learning. To extend Prescott's idea, the individual pupil, teacher, principal and parent cannot be taught, but he can learn.

The behavioral sciences can contribute significantly in learning ways of working with people. Supervisors must assume responsibility for promoting research in this area and for extending an understanding of the new techniques which are proven worthwhile.

And so it goes! A supervisor will spend an increasingly large amount of time working behind scenes. The teachers and principals will be the operators. The supervisor will be busy setting the stage so that the "best" of our present know-how can be practiced. But this is only one phase of the job. Education dare not stand still. To continuously improve learning, data, facts, and ideas must be dug up, to the end that the best of today's practice may become the basis for tomorrow's schools. These tasks are the supervisor's.

The Supervisor Helps Teachers in Arithmetic

By IRVIN H. BRUNE

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ORIGINALLY a supervisor was one who looked from above, a critical overseer, a strict authority. Presently, however, a supervisor is one who helps, a farseeing planner, a wise leader. Numerous supervisors have brought this new look to their responsibilities.

Such a transformation came not as an accident. The authoritarian way of life got a lengthy tryout in American schools. And it was found wanting. As educators looked at themselves and their work, they came to realize that lock-step methods bore little fruit, whether applied to children in a classroom or to teachers in a school system.

Accordingly, today's supervisor is a helper, not a taskmaster; a friend, not a fiend. The following sections will suggest how supervisors assist teachers in arithmetic, whether the teachers grope somewhat as beginners or gasp somewhat as veterans. Although not every help listed appears in a majority of schools, more and more teachers find such helps effective.

Supervisors Help Teachers to Procure Time

Within a welter of differences among teachers, one striking likeness appears, namely, teachers all lack time. This holds particularly for elementary teachers, the ones society commissions to help

children learn priceless fundamentals.

Most of the ways whereby supervisors help teachers in arithmetic provide a saving of time. When supervisors were overseers rather than planners, they often overlooked the importance of time. Standardized tests, for example, while good enough in themselves, defeat their purpose if the administration robs teachers of the time needed for planning and teaching. Granted that an occasional evaluation provides direction, it does not follow that numerous testing multiply the good. Indeed, an overdone program of measures steals the very time teachers need to reteach, and redirect learning.

Closely allied to the overuse of standardized tests are overdone records and reports. For teachers to record all grades thirteen times every term, as was revealed in a study made in one school system, certainly represents an abuse. Clerical duties apparently mount insidiously. Temptations ironically lurk in innovations. If the new way, though plausible, adds another chore without replacing an outmoded procedure, teachers soon bear needless burdens of busy-work. Supervisors can help teachers tremendously by pruning such routine ruthlessly.

Supervisors also can help teachers keep distractions to a minimum. Many

time-stealing nuisances in teachers' lives begin laudably. The catch is that they soon surge out of bounds. A few minutes to help Worthy Cause A soon becomes hours because Worthy Causes B, C, D. . . . also clamor for time and attention. A few minutes that should go to arithmetic, but are diverted for holding a pep meeting, for practicing a dance, or for rehearsing pupils' baton twirling, actually become a shameful diversion of time. As another example, an easily rationalized campaign to acquaint parents with what schools are doing readily converts to chaos. Any ranking school officer who freely invites parents to "visit our school at any time whatsoever" at the same time courts immeasurable harm. Surely better ways to "sell the public" exist than to herd parents (and sometimes their preschool children with them) indiscriminately into classrooms already filled to overflowing.

Besides helping teachers (and administrators who sanction interruptions) greatly reduce losses due to distractions, supervisors help teachers to make wise use of the school day. Life in a contemporary school grows increasingly complex; unless time is budgeted, first things, i.e., the Three R's, will not come first. This is not to urge that every school necessarily allot more time to say, arithmetic. Rather it seeks to use arithmetic time, whatever be its amount, effectively, and above all to respect that time. If, as a later section suggests, meaningless drill wastes time in arithmetic, then, of course, one can not reasonably seek more time for such drill. The point to reiterate here is that teachers need time to plan lessons and to prepare materials, and supervisors can help them procure that time. Although such assistance no doubt furthers *any* learning activity, the

very nature of arithmetic, as considered in the next section, stipulates regular and adequate time. This risks stressing the obvious; supervisors help tremendously when they work with teachers to keep arithmetic time strictly for arithmetic.

Supervisors Help Teachers to Emphasize Big Ideas

What is arithmetic? How do pupils learn arithmetic? All interested in public education need continually to ask themselves these questions. For on the answers thereto depend their philosophies and their procedures.

As regards the first question, arithmetic is a way of thinking. It enables people to handle problems involving numbers and quantities. It provides people with facts and information about sizes, orders, relations. It affords a system, whereby people keep track of ones, tens, hundreds, and so on.

With respect to the second question, pupils learn arithmetic by solving problems. Teachers set up situations, ask questions, provide problems. From the outset pupils handle sets of objects, compare sizes of sets, put sets together, take sets apart. Gradually pupils learn to order sets with respect to size, and to substitute an order of names of sizes for the sets themselves. Pupils use this order of number names when they count. Via counting, pupils can solve any problem in arithmetic.

But counting grows tedious. Memorized answers to various simple sums, differences, products, and quotients expediate the work. Symbols, particularly those wherein the positions of digits signify numerical values, facilitate thinking and record its results.

So pupils progress from things to symbols. All the while, however, they

compare, count, assemble, and disassemble quantities involved in situations which are, to them, genuine problems. Indeed, they embark, on seas to some extent unknown to them, to make discoveries for themselves.

The implications for supervisors abound. First of all, teachers themselves must understand arithmetic. Seldom, to be sure, did teachers neglect the details of arithmetic in their own schooling. They know arithmetic facts. They retain, or can readily refurbish, the rules. But not infrequently they possess the threads, rather than the fabric. So supervisors often help them regard arithmetic as a system, a discipline designed to help people process problems by comparing, counting, combining, and removing quantities. Such ideas (and they pervade all arithmetic) matter more than number facts which pupils memorize and number operations which pupils imitate.

Supervisors help by emphasizing big ideas in arithmetic. They encourage teachers to attend extension classes, educational conferences, and summer schools that weigh such ideas. Pre-school workshops highlight major concepts in arithmetic, and invite people to see the system, rather than the skills.

Ever mindful of that precious ingredient in teachers' lives, *time*, supervisors work within the schedule rather than beyond it. One particularly effective way to help teachers emphasize major concepts comes into play when the supervisor himself teaches preview, overview, or review lessons during the regular arithmetic period. Such demonstration lessons stress major concepts. They inevitably provide variety, which benefits the pupils, and they afford regular teachers opportunities to observe their pupils' reactions from a different

viewpoint. No quantity of bulletins, directives, and conference notes can entirely displace the benefits that result from supervisor-taught demonstration lessons. An ounce of example, supervisors find, really outweighs a pound of precept.

Supervisors Help Teachers to Employ Learning Aids

Stemming from sizeable gains in knowledge as to how pupils learn arithmetic, learning aids merit careful consideration. Pupils learn best by solving more-or-less-puzzling situations that intrigue them. When the individual learner hears, sees, feels, and thinks simultaneously, he learns more than he would via a single avenue of stimulation. Moreover, what he handles conduces more to his learning than what he merely hears.

Accordingly, supervisors help teachers to acquire and employ many types of learning aids. Films and filmstrips, if selected carefully and used sparingly, add interest and variety. Demonstration devices, such as a fraction board or a wall pocket, enable the whole group to follow a development. Information, neatly tabulated on a chalkboard, provides the setting for a class discussion.

But, since learning is individual even though a social situation may enhance it, supervisors see beyond the benefits of demonstration devices. Individual learning aids, that is to say, outperform the contraptions which merely enhance teaching of the tell-and-show sort. Materials that pupils themselves use to contrive an answer to a quantitative question avail abundantly. The pupil *feels* and sees and thinks. He *handles* the objects that represent the problem and illustrates its solution. Numerous experiences with such materials prepare

the pupil to manage other symbols, such as words, numerals, marks, and signs, that represent ideas in arithmetic. So more and more supervisors see materials including sticks to group and count, square inches to arrange and enumerate, and graphs to construct and compare, as tremendous helps. Obviously, the commonplace controversy, perpetuated, on the one hand, by administrators who aver that they "don't buy materials because teachers don't ask for them," and, on the other hand, by teachers who assert that they "don't ask for materials because administrators won't buy them," should cease. Indeed, many forward-looking supervisors encourage teachers to ask for arithmetic materials, and exhort administrators to buy them.

Supervisors Help Teachers Develop Pupil Readiness

People, pets, and playthings appeal to children. Marks, signs, and symbols, on the other hand, seem less natural. As pupils work in arithmetic they learn to deal with symbols that represent objects, actions, and ideas. Above all else, arithmetic applies to a set of ideas—concepts of size, order, and operations of combining and separating groups.

The transition from things to symbols seldom occurs without effort. But adults, including teachers, all too easily overlook this fact. Accordingly, the supervisor helps by reminding teachers occasionally that symbols, and what they represent; principles, and what they signify in the total structure; and shortcuts and what they expedite, assume meaning only gradually. Pupils learn arithmetic, this is to say, by enlarging understandings.

From numbers used for counting, for example, pupils go to enlarged concepts. Whereas $3 + 4 = 7$ and $7 - 4 = 3$

still involve only the numbers previously used to count objects, the situation $7 - 7$ does not. A new number, zero, becomes necessary. And effective teaching employs experiences emphasizing the new group, the empty set, the none-left idea. Seldom is arithmetic difficult, provided that the pupils are ready.

Readiness involves preparedness and willingness. Each of these, happily, complements the other. Interest, based on understanding arithmetic, facilitates pupils' further understandings. Success in the subject, moreover, enhances willingness to achieve further successes.

Teachers under pressures of time sometimes forget these matters. Supervisors, by alleviating such pressures as suggested earlier in the present article, can do much to shift teachers' questionable concerns with covering pages to more significant concerns with grasping ideas.

Supervisors Help Teachers Provide For Individual Differences

Learning arithmetic, though nurtured in a class, proceeds individually. Each pupil learns at his own rate. To challenge the able and simultaneously not to frustrate the slow is the problem. What can supervisors do about it? What should the supervisor suggest?

Answers could range all the way from tutoring individual pupils to guiding the class as a whole each step of the way. Each approach has its advocates; to date no one plan rates as a panacea. Those who clamor for subgroups in arithmetic often overlook the matter of time; how does one schedule subgroups in reading, arithmetic, and yet other subjects? At the other extreme, should fast learners be slowed to boredom and slow learners be incited to bewilderment?

Some supervisors have compromised rather successfully by recommending a sort of uniformity plus diversity. Since arithmetic deals with big ideas, all pupils should work with those ideas. Everybody, for example, should learn to count. All pupils profit by at least some of many various activities that prepare pupils for work in counting. Recognizing sets of things, comparing sets, composing sets, matching sets, arranging subsets, ordering sets—these are helpful activities. Fast learners explore them all, even those designed as too deep for slow learners, and probably invent some of their own. But all pupils learn to count in the allotted time. Some, of course, will go haltingly one by one; others may be going by twos, by fives, or possibly even by nines!

Helping teachers to meet individual differences among pupils merits a separate article, or possibly a book. Classes containing no more than twenty-five pupils working on minimum essentials with plenty of challenging extra materials available for gifted children seem to be one good answer. Just as the pupils present a great variety of abilities, however, so the supervisor should encourage a variety of ways to reach all the children. Good teaching is not a series of set steps. Especially do some supervisors help teachers and pupils by providing enrichment materials.

In no case should pupils skip any of the major concepts in arithmetic. Rather they should probe those ideas more thoroughly. While slow learners seek a single solution to a problem of moderate difficulty, fast learners should seek two, or three, or six solutions. While the plodders cope with $1/2 + 3/8 + 1/4$, the able tackle $1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/4 + 1/5 + \dots$ to any limit they desire. Besides this, pupils compose

and exchange problems. Stated simply, the plan some supervisors rightfully recommend provides open doors—ways that lead to considerable understanding for all, and enrichment for at least a few.

Supervisors Help Teachers Regarding Drill

To contrast arithmetic teaching today with its pedagogy twenty years ago is to describe a mild revolution. Far-reaching changes came because our knowledge of how people learn arithmetic progressed. The former pedagogy, for example, treated arithmetic as bits—facts, principles, rules—to be memorized. The present procedure, however, handles arithmetic as a system of ideas, a way of thinking. Whereas most teachers formerly gave little, if any, thought to pupils' understanding arithmetic, most teachers nowadays consider understanding as paramount.

But, though significant, the revolution lacks completeness. Teachers still evaluate textbooks according to the quantity of drill material they contain. Teachers' insistence that teaching materials enhance understanding lags.

Here lies a fertile ground for supervisors. Just what should one recommend concerning drill?

Drill indubitably has a place. It is not, however, the be-all. Many supervisors urge that pupils experience an idea in numerous ways, so that they understand the idea thoroughly, before they memorize symbols representing the idea. This holds for $A = lw$, as well as for $8 \times 7 = 56$. For a child to memorize that "the average of n numbers equals their sum over n " avails but little if he doesn't know what the statement means. Arithmetic teems with examples

wherein rote learning amounts practically to no learning.

If a pupil has had sufficient experiences, however, with length, width, perimeter, rectangle to compose something resembling $p = 2(1 + w)$ in meaning, then he may well memorize his rule. This interesting sequel, however, usually comes to light: after he composes the statement himself, the pupil usually knows it by heart without any drill.

Of course once pupils understand, say, the multiplication facts, they should memorize them. When pupils first approach a simple problem such as What is the cost of 7 three-cent stamps? they readily realize that, while some are counting or adding, the ones who *know* that 7 threes are 21 have the best way of all.

But the counting and the adding matter too. They bring out meanings pupils otherwise would miss. On the other hand, to tell and show pupils shortcuts prematurely usually defeats the very objective it should enhance; instead of saving time, it loses time. Drilling the esoteric keeps pupils busy—and ignorant. *Merely memorizing meaningless marks makes mathematics miserable material.*

Supervisors Help Teachers . . . *A Summary*

Insight is the principal thing. Therefore supervisors seek to foster insight. They help teachers because, from their vantage point, supervisors see the momentous as well as the minute. Whether a pupil understands arithmetic as a system is momentous. So, too, is his attitude. Does he experiment with numbers? Or is he afraid? Or bored? Whether a pupil mouths rules is minute. Does

he comprehend what he says? Or is it Choctaw? Or half true?

Teachers know all this. From their training and experience they know that insight pays. Yet all too frequently they believe that their role is to obey orders, push someone's pet theory, practice a method prescribed from on high.

But supervisors nowadays look at things differently. They doubt that there is one best method for teaching arithmetic. Or, if there were, they know, too, that the variety provided by interspersed applications of less-than-best procedures also brings benefits. Accordingly, they eschew rigid schedules of topics and strict how-to's.

Above all, supervisors help teachers obtain and maintain time. The well-conceived slogan, "r r r +", by no means suggests that the "+" displaces any of the 3 R's. And supervisors count it as elementary that time is the essence. Without time to explore it, arithmetic necessarily makes no lasting impressions.

Supervisors help teachers underline big ideas. Arithmetic systematizes people's thoughts about quantitative situations. Pupils answer questions of How much? and How many? via numbers, measures, operations. They learn to put quantities together and take them apart. Properly to stress major concepts in arithmetic, supervisors teach demonstration lessons highlighting estimating, approximating, solving, and proving. Teachers need occasionally to note their pupils' responses as seen from such a vantage point.

Supervisors help teachers use learning materials. Teachers agree that there are many effective ways to teach arithmetic. Yet the utility of objects that help pupils transfer their thinking from the world of real things to the realm of abstractions looms large. None disputes

this utility. Indeed the supervisor seldom renders greater service than when he provides learning aids for children. And *shows* teachers how to use these aids effectively!

Supervisors help teachers foster readiness, which blends attitude with aptitude. If nothing succeeds like success, arithmetic certainly illustrates the point. Pupils who understand arithmetic like it. Their liking it, in turn, enables them to increase their understandings.

Supervisors help teachers provide for differences among pupils. All citizens need to size up situations; all need to estimate outcomes; all need to recognize quantitative reasonableness. While the entire class works with details leading to such number sense, the ablest pupils also investigate further, but related, details; they solve standard problems in numerous ways; they solve harder problems. In a word, teachers *open* new doors. The supervisor aids immeasurably by contributing items to the collection of situations every effective teacher builds.

Supervisors help teachers maintain a sane attitude toward drill. To know

basic facts by heart befits all citizens; drill makes this possible. But to drill on arithmetical items, before they are clear, wastes time. For what does it profit a man to know *how* to divide if he doesn't know *when* to divide?

New occasions teach new duties. Steady growth in our knowledge of how pupils learn arithmetic has definitely altered supervisors' responsibilities. No longer do supervisors purvey standard drill sheets, standard study schedules, standard unit tests, and standard ways to teach. Rather they help teachers provide experiences, situations, materials, problems. In solving for themselves the precisely appropriate problems teachers provide for them, pupils learn best.

What do teachers need? Patience, understanding, and time—these three—and the greatest is time; at least supervisors can *do* something about time. Granted that supervisors invariably prefer teachers who manifest patience and understanding, the necessary further step is to provide the obvious, but often overlooked, prime ingredient, *time*. The net effect really amounts to this: *They let their teachers teach!*

Denver Develops *an* In-Service Program for All Elementary Principals

By RUTH IRENE HOFFMAN

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SUGGESTIONS poured in for topics to be used in the seminar program for the coming year. The recorders in each group had difficulty keeping up with the rapid-fire response to the request for subjects for future meetings. This tempo was typical of the entire tone of the meeting, since it was the conclusion of the evaluation session for the year's program.

The series of *Instructional Leadership Seminars for Elementary Principals* in the Denver Public Schools was being brought to a conclusion after a year's trial run. The results were heartening, because the opinion was unanimous that the series had been most worthwhile. The real core of the success lay in the fact that these meetings had been more than helpful, they had opened up channels of communication, had given opportunity for face-to-face relationships, and the sharing of experiences and concerns, that gave to each principal the feeling that he is not working alone.

The Origin and Development of the Seminars

The seminar program had its origin in a questionnaire that was sent to every elementary school principal in Denver in the Spring of 1956 in an attempt to locate outstanding areas of interest and common concern. The results of this questionnaire made it clear that princi-

pals are seeking ways of interpreting and defining their role and responsibilities, and desires to share experiences, to gain insights into the ever-changing role of the principal, and to recommend any action that might be helpful in carrying out the required work.

The President of the Denver Public Schools Elementary Principals' Association appointed a principals' in-service committee to determine the best method of dealing with these indicated interests and concerns. This committee working cooperatively with the Division of Instructional Services developed the seminar program, based on the theme of instructional leadership.

Four meetings for the year were planned with the following pattern:

1. An opening presentation or address by an authority to launch discussion, inspire, and give direction to the meetings
2. A coffee hour to allow for socialization and free discussion
3. Small discussion groups with the membership such that there would be in each group principals with differing periods of experience and from each section of the city
4. Summaries before the entire body from the various groups in order that all might share in the total discussion and that recommendations might be brought together.

Another noteworthy feature of the

seminars which was rated high in the evaluation session was the system of rotating leadership developed for each meeting. The planning committee itself was subdivided so that a group of three people, different for each meeting, took the leadership in planning the theme, sending out preliminary outlines to all principals, making arrangements, carrying out the meetings, and summarizing. At the four seminars each discussion group had a different principal serving as chairman and recorder on each occasion, giving leadership roles to a total of forty-two principals during the course of the year.

As the program developed and grew the first two seminars were based on seven special points of the instructional program where particular interest had been expressed by principals through the questionnaire and through discussion in the seminar itself. The last two were devoted to working relationships of the principals with the coordinators and the supervisory personnel in the Division of Instructional Services.

A Typical Meeting

The first meeting was typical of the ones that followed. The elementary principals from the eighty-two schools assembled in the cafeteria of the Hill Junior High School at 8:30 a.m. They were greeted at the door by members of the planning committee who had a name card for each. These came in five different colors and the color indicated in which of the five discussion groups each was to participate. Thus the membership of each group was determined by chance and resulted in a diversity of experience and a range of community problems for every group.

After a brief introduction to the series of meetings and its purposes, the

chairman introduced Dr. Kenneth E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools and the keynote speaker for the morning. He discussed the role of today's elementary principal, indicating that this role is expanding, and that the emphasis must be retained in the area of instructional leadership, with "direction" as the key word in this leadership. He discussed the K-12 Guides and the Points of Emphasis of the Denver Public Schools as leaders on the list of important tasks to be accomplished. He further pointed out that schools should operate within a "range of tolerance". In instructional leadership each principal should know the range in his own community and in the city and thus get at the most important things as judged by the public, the home, and other agencies. He concluded by emphasizing the need for instilling in children a love of learning and the importance of the example set by the teachers and each staff member in his work and actions.

As the coffee hour was called and principals gathered in groups of two's and three's, discussion was animated and a fine spirit of enthusiasm and anticipation was apparent. This excellent co-operation was pin-pointed later in the evaluation as being due to the complete communication with the entire group of principals in sharing plans, acting on suggestions, and the pre-planning with those who were to be leaders and recorders in the groups. Dr. Oberholtzer's inspiring words had also acted as a stimulus for professional discussion.

The five groups adjourned to previously arranged places, and the chairman and recorder took over on the discussion topics. Each member had been provided with a list of five topics, taken from the most frequently marked items on the questionnaire of the previous

Spring. The groups were free to discuss one, two, or more of these items, share opinions, raise questions, and make recommendations. Discussion never lagged, every member participated, and the more experienced principals were asking questions as frequently as they were giving opinions. Everyone profited and everyone participated.

Time was called at the end of an hour and all members adjourned to the auditorium. The recorders from each group summarized the remarks, questions, and recommendations. These recommendations were turned over to the President of the Elementary Principals' Association for action. The entire meeting had lasted three hours.

Discussion Topics

The planning committee met after each seminar to gather together the discussion topics and results and to lay tentative plans for the next seminar so that each meeting would be an outgrowth of interests and would follow the evolving pattern. Following this meeting the committee in charge then made the specific plans, sent these plans to all principals, and arranged for the opening presentation and the group topics. Part of the preparatory work included preliminary meetings with group leaders and recorders to determine time limits and areas of emphasis, as well as to review group process techniques desirable for effective meetings.

In this manner ten pertinent matters of interest were covered in the various discussion groups in the course of the seminars:

1. Service appraisal of the individual teacher
2. Interpretation of the instructional program to the teacher

3. Acquainting the teacher with available resources
4. Leadership in interpreting and enforcing school policies
5. Fostering creative thought and action on the part of the teacher
6. Conference techniques with parents
7. In-service education in individual schools
8. The co-ordinator-principal relationship
9. The supervisor-principal relationship
10. Evaluation of the seminar program.

Opening Presentations

In line with these topics the opening presentations were keyed to the line of discussion being pursued in the various groups. After the initial address by Dr. Oberholtzer, the second meeting was opened by Dr. Roy Hinderman, Deputy Superintendent in charge of instructional services, and Mr. Peter Holm, Assistant Superintendent in charge of personnel, who talked to the topic of teacher appraisal in response to questions and expressed concern on this topic.

The third seminar was launched by an opening address by Dr. Louis Braun, Administrative Director in the Division of Instructional Services. He gave a history and overview of the co-ordinator program and the elementary principal's relationship to it. This presentation was followed by a panel discussion of principals and co-ordinators who raised various questions and proposed answers in this same area. The entire co-ordinator staff were invited to this session and participated in all parts of the seminar.

At the final meeting Dr. Arthur Olson, Director in the Division of Instructional Services summarized the three previous seminars, relating the previous presentations to the fact that

supervision is changing, and he gave some aspects of the principal's relationship to the supervisors and their work. In this meeting a panel of supervisors discussed their part in the over-all program of instruction and suggested ways in which they can work most effectively with principals for the improvement of instruction.

Evaluation of the Seminars

In the general evaluation of the seminar program the group approved the number of meetings, the spacing and type of meetings, but added the suggestion that the summaries be eliminated in order to give more time for group sharing. These summaries, they felt, could be effectively presented in written form.

Some specific and concrete gains were made from the meeting in the form of recommendations, and the definite clarification of certain procedures. More important than these intangibles—the feeling of sharing, of working together, of mutual support that was established during the course of the year.

The principals stated that there were many factors that made the meetings successful, but that some of the outstanding ones were as follows:

1. Groupings that provided for varied membership at each seminar
2. Sending the agenda ahead of time
3. Rotating chairman and recorder so that many had an opportunity to participate as leaders
4. Careful planning given each meeting
5. Variety of topics based on actual needs and interests
6. Well chosen resource personnel
7. Opportunity afforded for sharing experiences.

Not only were the recommendations that required further action of importance, but the discussions themselves had cleared up many issues where there had been divergency in practice or policy. In order that principals might have these to refer to, the central committee prepared and sent to each member a summary of opening presentations, discussions, recommendations, and the evaluation of the series.

The Elementary Principals' Association concluded that the meetings had been valuable and that a new era in in-service education for principals had been launched.

The Improvement of Art Education Through Supervision

By BLANCHE W. JEFFERSON

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THE IMPROVEMENT of instruction is the primary purpose of art supervision. There are many reasons why supervision is a necessary implement in the improvement of the teaching-learning situation in art education. These reasons are determined by the needs of the teachers and children. A wise supervisor will be aware of these general needs and understand that they vary with every classroom situation. Whether or not there is improvement in art instruction and the degree of this improvement depends upon:

1. the art supervisor's awareness of the needs
2. her ingenuity in dealing with them
3. her tactful relationship with the teachers
4. the teachers' willingness to cooperate with the supervisor
5. the teachers' willingness to change and to learn
6. the support of the school administrators

The supervisor should be a leader, guiding teachers and children toward richer and more varied learning situations; at the same time she should be a helper, aiding the teacher with her problems. In the intimate day-to-day work with children the teacher can learn more thoroughly their individual and group needs than can someone who

visits the class only occasionally. When the teacher and supervisor work together, the children profit greatly from their teamwork. The teacher giving of her intimate knowledge of the children and their needs, and the supervisor giving of her specialized and broad knowledge of one subject makes for a stronger education than both individuals working alone could achieve. The children gain the advantage of the teacher's knowledge plus the supervisor's contributions plus the joint decisions of both.

There are many ways by which supervision can improve instruction. The SPECIAL NATURE OF ART requires the help of someone whose education and experiences have been principally those involved with the creative areas. The extreme individual and personal nature of the art experience requires that art teaching be approached differently from other school subjects. Art is something to see, to feel, to do, to sense, to imagine, to enjoy, rather than to read about, talk about, or listen to. It depends more upon inspiration, emotional intensity the novel and personal approach and development than it does upon a logical step-by-step procedure as in the case of most other problem-solving situations.

The form and content of art are quite different from that of other learning areas. There is nothing static, no

fixed principles, no set forms, no limitations of materials or techniques. Every artist creates his own way. Art is always changing; the art of every age changes to express the spirit of the times. Therefore, it is taught best by someone who has studied the special nature of art. If every child cannot have the daily advantage of being taught by an art teacher, an art supervisor can do much to help children enjoy art and develop creatively.

Because art is such a special subject, there is a DIFFERENT APPROACH TO TEACHING ART than in most other subjects. Creative expression is the best method of teaching art because it is the most child-centered method. It provides for and insists upon the individually different ideas and expressions of each child.

In so many areas of education all of the children are learning the same thing at the same time in the same way. Of necessity this must be so. In reading, for example, the word HOUSE must say and mean the same thing to everybody or we could not communicate with each other. In spelling every child must not only have all the letters alike but have them in exactly the right order. The one which is different is wrong. The approach to teaching art is a strong motivation for each to express his own ideas in his own way. Every child's work is *expected* to be different. A premium is put upon ingenuity, improvisation, imagination.

Teachers need constantly to be in touch with someone who, understanding the creative process, can be an inspirational leader and aid to them in giving children confidence to be creative.

The LIMITED ART BACKGROUND of most teachers makes

supervision an important instrument for improving instruction. With the many different subjects taught by the classroom teacher it is impossible to expect her to have a broad and special education in all of them. Realizing this the supervisor can direct her efforts toward the education of the teachers as well as toward the education of the children. Indirectly the children will benefit as their teacher learns.

The supervisor can conduct workshops for teachers to give them direct creative experiences with materials. But there are also many ways in which each teacher's individual teaching needs can be met during the supervisor's scheduled visits. A teacher who feels insecure about how to teach water color painting in her third grade can profit greatly by watching the supervisor conduct two or three such classes. She can observe how and when the supervisor distributes materials, her motivation, and guidance procedures. A brief discussion following the lesson or while the children are painting gives the teacher an opportunity to ask questions and the supervisor a chance to point out certain procedures.

A teacher may be unaware of certain areas in which she could be more effective in her art teaching. Instruction is improved when the supervisor stresses these areas in her work with the teacher and children. She calls the teacher's attention to such an area in indirect ways and by emphasizing its importance in their discussions of art lessons and in their planning together.

Teachers have a large number of different subjects to teach and are responsible for planning interesting lessons and activities. Since planning a variety of activities is demanding, teachers need someone who can give them NEW INSIGHTS AND SUGGESTIONS in art.

Interest is excited and held by new approaches, new uses of materials, different combinations of media, and a wide variety of activities. The supervisor, with her broad knowledge of art, and the teacher, with her knowledge of her student's needs, can develop together a real and meaningful growth experience through art education.

Helpful and friendly supervision gives the teacher a **FEELING OF SUPPORT**. She knows that help and encouragement are close at hand. If she has a problem or if she needs help in planning art activities or correlating art to other areas of the curriculum, she can call upon the supervisor or consult with her about it when she makes her next visit. Sometimes the supervisor's visit can be profitably spent in planning with the teacher rather than in presenting a lesson to the children. The alert teacher realizes that she has much to gain personally and professionally through her supervisor. The effectiveness of her teaching is strengthened through supervision.

Children and teachers alike look for the **STIMULATION OF A DIFFERENT PERSON IN THE CLASSROOM**. Just the fact that the supervisor is coming at a known time arouses anticipation for an art activity. Such anticipation provides fertile ground for learning.

Supervision **UNIFIES THE PHILOSOPHY OF ART** within a school district. This contribution is a valuable one which supervision makes toward the improvement of instruction. Without the

influence of a person responsible for the philosophy of art education, teachers might use different methods of teaching art. When this is the case, a child becomes confused as he progresses from one grade to another. Being exposed to a change in point of view and working processes may interfere with and damage a child's mental and creative growth.

As she works with teachers and children in different grades and from school to school, the supervisor can, with the backing of her school administrators, establish a unified point of view which will provide growth as children proceed from grade to grade or move from one school to another.

The supervisor can work toward **EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN ART** for every child, but the achievement of it is difficult because of the various personalities of teachers. Not all teachers feel equally adequate in art; nor do they in other areas of the curriculum, either. Some are interested in art and provide daily rich creative experiences. Others care less for it and develop more fully the areas they like better. This is a normal situation found in any school system. Through supervision an attempt can be made to equalize opportunities in art for every child, and a better balanced situation can be achieved.

Supervision is a valuable aid to the in-service growth of teachers, which, in turn, brings about improvement of art education. When teachers and supervisors work together, the effectiveness of the teaching is enhanced.

The Teacher's Responsibility for Speech Difficulties

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DESPITE CERTAIN unusual circumstances, largely stimulated by excessive class loads, our elementary teachers have recognized the reality of their task, creating a classroom atmosphere that is conducive to the growth of children. Ideally, this teaching method, capitalizing on strong points, and applying remedial measures to weaknesses, guarantees each boy and girl school experiences consistent with individual characteristics, aptitudes, and abilities.

The speech expressions of children constitute an excellent example of individual characteristics. Oral and written communication depends basically on the power of the child to formulate thoughts. Spoken language is also dependent on the child's ability to make each sound correctly, individually, and in context.

Unfortunately, through the years, the poor speech habits of children have all too often been associated with mental deficiency; *stutterers* and *lisps* being looked upon by age-mates as undesirable associates. Despite the effectiveness a warmly sympathetic teacher might have under more reasonable conditions, additional steps are necessary if she is to help these children make a contribution to the class.

Statistics reveal the problem of speech handicap to be shared by approximately

15 per cent of the children of elementary school age, although Ogilvie refers to the incidence in statistics of 3 to 12 per cent.² Articulatory defects not associated with mental deficiency or organic or hearing involvements account for roughly 65 per cent of all speech difficulties. Growth and maturity are also factors to be considered, and eliminate many sound errors during the course of the first four grades. There is general consensus that maturation does not effect noticeable improvements in the speech sounds of children in higher grades.

The teacher needs to accept children with defective speech in the classroom regardless of the nature and extent of their deficiency. Some teachers try to ridicule certain of these children in the hope that such treatment will *shame* the child to correct speech. Parents as well as teachers have also employed an *ignoring* tactic, assuming the child will *outgrow* the condition.

Society has been very critical of the way people talk, and many times socioeconomic status and educational level are inadvertently determined from patterns of speech. Spoken communication being so important to effective societal acceptance places an undue burden on speech handicapped individuals. Attitudes promoting the ignoring of speech difficulties often boil down to a rejection

tion of the encumbered person in a social living situation. Such repudiation often leads to insurmountable insecurities and failures.

Ideally, well-trained public school teachers should have at least an elementary understanding of speech diagnosis and therapy. Such training should be taken in conjunction with undergraduate preparation. Unfortunately, institutions engaged in the preparation of classroom teachers have been slow to recognize the complexity of the issue, so that the great bulk of practicing teachers have little if any formal knowledge of diagnostic and remedial speech work.

The vast majority of mild speech disorders can be classified as *articulatory*. If the child's voice is unusually harsh, strident, or hoarse, there is the possibility that the child is harbouring a much more serious speech disorder, and a proper referral would involve a speech correctionist and a physician.

The teacher in her eagerness to do a good job many times is in danger of failing to analyze the individual children in the group. While a classroom teacher would not be held responsible for ascertaining the nature of a serious speech disorder, this does not preclude her fundamental responsibility for being able to recognize the existence of a possible problem. Because of the conditions under which she has contact with the child, she is most able to observe his particular *normal* speech. She is able to discover defective sounds and to observe the condition of circumstances under which the sounds occur. Such observation by the teacher often leads to a thorough analysis of the child's articulation under the direction of a trained correctionist.

The Department of Special Education of the Tucson Arizona public schools report an excellent remedial program.¹ Trained speech correctionists make daily visits to the schools, and work with a case load of sixty to sixty-five children. The parents of children diagnosed as having speech problems are given guidance through the Department of Special Education. In-service training makes it possible for speech correctionists and teachers to work together to solve problems of oral communication.

Children in the classroom having articulatory defects can many times be helped by the regular teacher. Of course, the time element cannot be overlooked in fully appreciating the teacher's role. Where such therapy is possible, a good speech correctionist should be consulted, since these people are able to help teachers clarify some of the basic principles. Teachers should follow a general pattern somewhat consistent with the following outline:

1. The child must be convinced that he has errors which he must eliminate.
2. Any known causes of the disorder, if still present, must be eliminated.
3. The old word configurations are broken down so that the correct sound and the error may be isolated, recognized, and discriminated.
4. The child must be taught to produce the correct sound in isolation, and at will.
5. The new and correct sound must be strengthened.
6. The sound must be incorporated within familiar words, and the transition to normal speech must be accomplished.
7. The use of the correct sound must be made habitual, and the error must be eliminated.

A large proportion of the work for children with speech problems is conducted on a group basis. Usually this is a matter of necessity. The groups should be kept relatively small, six to eight children being the maximum number taken at any one time. Ear training, very important in good speech therapy, can be encouraged where lessons are designed to give children opportunities to check each other. Learning to listen analytically to speech promotes the recognition of deviations where they occur, and is one of the more important steps in the development of ear training.

An increased motivation in the group can be encouraged where the teacher utilizes a wide variety of games and other teaching devices compatible with the children's interests. This of course must be consistent with the speech activity, concentrating on the natural elements in children's behavioral processes. Friendly competition can be a powerful motivational force, and can contribute greatly to the general progress of the children.

Most teachers will use the *stimulus word method* with children. This meth-

od consists merely of the repetition by the child of what the teacher says. Sometimes looking in a mirror and at the same time saying the sounds will help the child to learn proper position for the sound. Much can be said also for the teacher's responsibility for maintaining a constant level of correct pronunciation herself. Disciplined articulation on her part often leads to a higher level of performance in all of the children, not just those with orthoepic defects.

Summary

Although the circumstance of the situation prevents the typical classroom teacher from assuming a major responsibility for children with speech handicaps, the very nature of their contact with children types them as most likely to recognize deviations. The teacher's major task, therefore, becomes one of recognition. The atmosphere of perplexity that often surrounds a child's problems diminishes where a classroom framework develops that is consistent with the optimum of good observational technique.

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2. Ogilvie, Mardel, *Speech in the Elementary School*, McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., New York, 1954, pp. 236.

Reading, Like Charity, Begins *at* Home

By PHYLLIS FENNER

Manchester, Vermont

"Fe, Fi, Fo, Fum

I smell the blood of an Englishman."

WHAT PLEASANT CHILLS ran up and down my spine as my mother told me the story of "Jack and the Bean Stalk." My father often worked late and my mother must have been lonesome for she let me sit up with her, and as she sewed she told me stories, "The Little Red Hen," "Jack, the Giant Killer," and others. Right then and there began, not only my love of books, but my very learning to read. For reading, like charity, begins at home. The stories that are told and read to little children, the sharing of picture books, books in the home, all these things make reading seem as natural as breathing so that when the children start to school books are friends already.

How often we hear people say "John is a poor speller, but of course, his father could never spell either." Or, "Mary can't sing a note but then Aunt Helen is a monotone." But do we ever hear anyone say, "Bob, doesn't like to read, but then, none of his family ever 'crack' a book"? Yet, family background plays such an important part in a child's reading.

There is nothing quite so wonderful and exciting as bringing children and books together, and parents have the best opportunity to do it. For parents are very important people. It makes a catch come in the throat to see how chil-

dren love them, the deserving and undeserving alike. What "my mother says" or "my father does" is what counts. The little seven year old who, on his first trip to the library, asked for a "good murder-mystery," didn't know what murder was. He only knew he wanted the kind of book his father read.

This bringing children and books together is really very easy if we but pay attention to it. We want our children to have an appreciation of music so we pay for music lessons and buy them concert tickets. We take them to Williamsburg that they may better appreciate their country's story. Fathers who want their sons to love baseball, talk baseball, play baseball with them, and take them to ball games. Yet, how seldom we think of building a background for reading.

Friendliness, it seems to me, is the first step. Books around the home, not necessarily bought, but borrowed from the library. Trips to the library, letting the children choose their own books after looking them over. Buying books for birthdays and Christmases, and once in awhile letting the children buy books for themselves. Reading aloud as a family. This not only stimulates an interest in books but it establishes a good habit of listening, for listening is a habit that too few people these days have. Talking about books is a part of this too. Dad tells what he used to read

and then listens to what his son has been reading, and not too critically. We didn't read the classics all the time when we were young but you would often think so when you hear us oldsters talk. We can't change a child's taste by saying a book is bad. His only measurement is if he likes it.

Friendliness also means a lack of antagonism. Bob rushed into my library very often after school. He would grab almost any book and then rush out again. I became curious because he was so little interested in what he took. I found out what was going on. His father, a tired commuter, was going to make a reader out of Bob, by jingo, if it took his last shred of energy. So every night Bob had to read to his father. Result? Bob was well on his way to hating reading.

Above the clamor round my library desk one morning rose Alex's voice: "It's the bloodiest and best book I ever read." At once all the boys within hearing distance wanted to read Alex's book. If we could put half the enthusiasm Alex had into bringing children and books together we would have more children interested in books.

Almost every child will read some kind of a book. Hobart was interested in nothing but snakes. He came to the libraries for some pictures and was sur-

prised at my suggestion that he take some books on the subject. When he came back he took out the life of Dittmars, the snake man, and then lives of other scientists and explorers, and then books on nature. Before we knew it Hobart was doing a lot of reading, not fiction, but along his own interests. One of the best ways of interesting a disinterested child in reading is through his own interests.

We want our children to enjoy reading, to read for fun, but we must realize that what they read for fun may not be what we would choose. Jim's favorite book was "Harper's Book of Electricity" "Because it tells me what I want to know." We have wonderful books on all subjects for children these days, that even the youngest reader can read. There are many children who are real readers yet read only non-fiction. They are the doers and without them this world wouldn't get very far.

Bringing children and books together also brings us close to children. The sharing of the delights in reading is something a child will never forget. In this rather messy world of today the children need something to cling to. Childhood is such a short time. If we don't hurry we will miss this wonderful opportunity of getting close to them.

What Schools Are Doing In Developing Listening Power

By GUY WAGNER*

"Listen, my children
and you shall hear." —*Longfellow*

NINETEEN HUNDRED years ago the famous Greek historian Plutarch wrote, "Know how to listen and you will profit even from those who talk badly." A contemporary of his Epictetus, the famous Greek philosopher, observed "Nature has given to men one tongue but two ears, that we may hear from others twice as much as we speak."

Throughout the centuries other wise men have pointed out the importance of listening power. Shakespeare noted its importance when he had Falstaff say, "It is the disease of not listening, the malady of not marking, that I am troubled withal."

In more recent times James Russell Lowell probably had the importance of listening in mind when he said, "Attention is the stuff that memory is made of, and memory is accumulated genius."

Traditionally the literate person has been described as one who can read and write. If such a person, however, is a poor listener it would appear illogical to credit him with having achieved the state of literacy. A friendly little international incident reported by George

Jensen, assistant superintendent of the Sacramento, California, schools, seems to illustrate this point very clearly. Not long ago an American teacher was making suggestions to a Hindu teacher for the advancement of literacy in India. After listening courteously and attentively to the American's point of view the Indian replied, "We should welcome your help. Perhaps we have something to offer in return. For while I regret the inability of many of my people to read and write, yet we must consider further the meaning of literacy. In the United States you measure literacy by the written word. In India, we have literacy of the spoken word—thoughtfully spoken and thoughtfully listened to."¹

Just how much importance are our schools attaching to this matter of good listening? Certainly little was done in the direct teaching of this skill in the schools of yesteryear. During the past ten years, however, there are many evidences that listening is being given more attention in the way of systematic instruction. Dr. Ralph G. Nichols, University of Minnesota, writing in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* for May 1952 says that, "Today there is a real

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1. From *Skill in Listening*, National Council of Teachers of English, 1955, p. 5.

awakening in education to the importance of listening comprehension; that is, to the importance of learning through listening to speakers in 'live' situations in which visual and aural cues complement each other in the mode of presentation." He goes on to point out that a number of states have been revising their English courses of study to include training designed to improve listening comprehension. He suggests that the work of the Curriculum Revision Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English has been of great influence in setting this new direction of language instruction. This committee has recommended the "abandonment of emphasis upon the single skill of writing and the development of multiple emphasis upon the four basic processes of verbal communication."

A survey of elementary and secondary school English textbooks as well as curriculum guides reveals that more and more space is being devoted to the listening facet of the language arts. In all likelihood, these present-day textbooks and courses of study are only reflecting the leadership of the National Council.

Hillsborough County Board of Public Instruction, *The Language Arts in the Elementary Schools*. Tampa, Florida, 1955. Chapter II.

This entire chapter is devoted to the answering of such questions as: (1) Why teach listening? (2) What factors influence listening? (3) What kinds of listening are used? (4) Where do listening skills develop? and (5) How is listening encouraged?

The teacher-authors of this chapter point out that while listening *can* be taught, as a learned skill it has been seriously neglected. They emphasize the point that strong forces that seek to influence thinking and behavior increase the need for our young people to criti-

cally evaluate what is heard. They also suggest that listening is more difficult than reading because the listener has little control over the speaker's pace, and time does not permit reflective thinking.

Thoughtful listening, of course, means more than just hearing words or sounds. It involves at least these five skills: (1) Following the thought of the speaker, (2) Comprehending in terms of past experience, (3) Seeing relationships, (4) Critically examining what is heard, and (5) Developing empathy (the ability to put oneself in another person's place).

Obviously, it is important that schools do more than merely recognize the importance of listening and what characterizes the good listener. To achieve effective listening there must be a systematically planned action program. Some of the practical suggestions presented in this publication include: (1) Organize small discussion groups within the class, as smaller audiences make both talking and listening easier, (2) Place responsibility upon the audience by asking each listener to select one point to remember when listening to an oral report, (3) Teach the pupils how to summarize a brief talk in a few sentences—this will force them to get at the heart of the oral presentation, and (4) Use such devices as the old telephone game in which a pupil reads a news item to a second who tells it to a third and so on. Ask the fifth or sixth child to report it to the class. A comparison of this report with the original item may point out how carelessly we usually listen. With practice, the children will develop better habits of speech and more attentive listening.

New York City Board of Education, *Language Arts, Grades 1-6*. Curriculum Bulletin, No. 4, 1954-55 Series.

It is pointed out in this bulletin that the communication skills are interdependent. In any one language arts period, for instance, the children may be listening, speaking, reading, and writing about a common experience.

The point is that all of the four aspects of the language arts are taught—and *listening* is no longer an overlooked skill.

This bulletin is organized so as to present the language arts program for grades 1-2 in one section, grades 3-4 in another section, and grades 5-6 in a final section. At each level, suggestions are made for providing opportunities for purposeful listening. For example, at the first level (grades 1-2) the listening situations presented include listening to: (1) The speaker in conversation and dramatization, (2) the dictation of others, (3) simple directions, (4) stories, puzzles, and poems, (5) the teacher reading passages from books to answer questions, and (6) mechanical devices such as radio, television, records, sound motion pictures, public address systems, and such sounds as bells, the wind, the clock, machinery, and birds in order to develop concepts as louder, softer, harsh, and shrill.

For each level, the characteristics of the good listener are listed.

State of Minnesota, Department of Education, *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts*. St. Paul 1, Minnesota, 1956.

This comprehensive curriculum handbook begins with the simple statement that "The language arts are reading, writing, speaking, and listening." It points out further that we receive ideas by listening and reading and we express our own ideas by speaking and writing. Like nearly all present-day curriculum handbooks in the language arts, listening is considered one of the four basic processes of verbal communication. It is teamed with reading as a way of receiving communications while speaking is teamed with writing as a way of communicating to others.

In this Minnesota guide to the language arts program, motive for learning is furnished by broad units of instruction "in which pupils consider topics of moment to themselves as adolescents. In pursuit of these problems they find a

need to share ideas, to seek facts or evidence, to develop power in speech or reading, and to learn from the ideas expressed by others in the group." Because of the reality of these problems, a dynamic approach can be given to the teaching of the listening skills.

Consequently, for each of the units (there are seven units for each of the grades—seven thru twelve), a number of listening objectives are set forth and the learning activities include ways of attaining these goals.

It is pointed out that skills in listening must be differentiated according to the purposes of the speaker or listener and the form of presentation. For instance, if the speaker's purpose is to persuade, the listener's purpose will be to: (1) Follow the line of reasoning carefully, (2) Judge its value, (3) Be conscious of the speaker's intent and method, and (4) Yield to or repudiate his ideas.

Brentwood Public Schools, *A Handbook in Language Arts—Speaking, Writing, Listening, and Handwriting*. Brentwood 17, Missouri, compiled 1952-53.

One-sixth of this 151-page mimeographed curriculum handbook is devoted to *listening*. Following a short introduction in which the importance of good listening is presented, the remainder of the section on listening is devoted largely to practical games and exercises designed to develop the attitudes and skills basic to effective listening.

The teacher-authors point out several important implications for classroom teachers:

1. Teachers should be sensitized to the importance of skillful listening as a factor in intelligent communication.
2. Present classroom listening practices should be evaluated to determine whether they are really defensible learning experiences. (Any local school system could no doubt carry on a profitable action program in this regard during the current school year.)

3. Purposeful and critical listening should be concomitants of many listening experiences.
 4. Children should have more experiences in planned speaking and listening with their peer group—with less time devoted to listening to the teacher.
 5. Use should be made of more auditory aids, experiments, excursions, and other experiences that require group discussion before, during, and after the activity.
 6. Oral reading should consist of materials that are fresh, interesting, and meaningful to the children.
 7. Less time should be devoted to parroting questions and answers from the test and to making monosyllabic answers to teachers' questions with more time devoted to group discussion and to problem solving.
 8. A wide variety of listening experiences should be introduced into the classrooms if children are to learn to adapt the *kind* of listening they do to that type which will best serve the purpose of the activity.
1. A good listener is not only popular everywhere, but after a while he knows something.
 2. All languages are easier to learn by practice than from rules. That is to say, by hearing, re-reading, copying, imitating with hand and tongue, and doing all these as frequently as is possible.
 3. Although the language art of listening is the one most frequently used both in and out of school, it is unfortunately also the most neglected language art at all levels.
 4. If we glance into the history of mankind's cultural development, we realize that listening is an art of learning as old as the human species, antedating speaking and writing.
 5. With the introduction of the printing press nearly four centuries ago, listening slowly gave precedence to reading and the printed page as a medium of education.
 6. Apparently we have come to believe that children learn automatically to listen and to speak. They may — but they can be taught to listen and to speak better.
 7. Although listening was the primary means of learning before the invention of printing and although, through the coming of radio, television and the motion picture, it has again assumed a significant place in modern communication, few people have become analytical about what is listening, or the comprehension of the spoken symbol.
 8. Hearing and listening are not synonymous. The medical doctor's concern is with hearing; the teacher's concern is with listening.
 9. Listening is more than hearing. It involves following attentively the thread of a conversation, the development of an idea, the points of an argument. Like read-

University of Wyoming, The Curriculum and Research Center, *Diagnostic and Instructional Procedures in the Language Arts*. Laramie, Wyoming, 1956.

Although this publication does not describe the listening program for a specific school system, it is replete with suggestions which may well be considered in the development of any local, county or state program.

Twenty pages of this 194-page mimeographed publication are devoted to the explanation of what listening means, the physical and psychological factors involved, and the analysis of listening disabilities. Much of this material is based upon research and there is an extensive bibliography.

The following points seem, to this reviewer, to be distinctive and important:

ing, it requires comprehension in terms of past experience of the listener and involves critical examination of what is heard.

10. As our division of work—reading is based upon the reader's purposes, so our division of work—listening into subtypes must be based upon the listener's purposes. Thus we distinguish between listening for directions and listening for news of an election or of a sport event. The following purposes have been indicated:

- a. Listening for the answer to a definite question.
- b. Listening to a question, with the intention to answer.
- c. Listening to form an opinion on a controversial question.
- d. Listening for news—no particular news.
- e. Listening to an argument in order to answer it.
- f. Listening to directions which one expects to follow.
- g. Listening for unspecified information on a topic one is interested in.

Akron Public Schools, *Curriculum Handbook—Reading and Literature, Oral and Written Communication*. Akron, Ohio, 1956.

It is pointed out in this curriculum handbook that reading and listening are the receptive arts, as speaking and writing are the expressive arts. It is also noted that growth in speaking and learning is inter-related with growth in listening.

The teacher plays an important part in preparing the class for listening. She can be most helpful in this respect if she: (1) Regards what the child has to say as important, (2) Helps the pupils choose content suited to the interest and maturity of the group, (3) Plans with the children so that they sense the purpose for which they are listening in a given situation, (4) Helps the group set up standards for listening, (5) Provides many opportunities for child par-

ticipation by answering, questioning, adding to, and discussing what they have heard, (6) Makes provision for children to participate in follow-up experiences in drawing, dramatization, re-telling, constructing, and writing, (7) Guides children to judge the value of what they have heard, (8) Plans seating arrangements so that the children may face one another, and (9) Adjusts the length of listening time to the maturity of the group.

A helpful list of questions are presented so that a child may check his own listening habits. Several of the more important questions are: (1) Do I get ready to listen? (2) Do I look at the speaker? (3) Do I keep my mind on what is being said? (4) Can I select the main idea? (5) Can I recall in sequence? (6) Can I follow directions I hear? (7) Can I re-tell what I hear?

The teachers who prepared this bulletin also present their belief that "You can't learn to talk nor listen in a 'SH' school." They also point out that "there ought to be a time when you can talk freely without fear of being laughed at or corrected as to either the pattern of speech or to the subject of conversation!"

Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, *Reading, Writing, Speaking, Listening for the Secondary Schools*. Bulletin 280, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, 1952.

It is pointed out in this publication that until quite recently the ability to listen well has been taken for granted. The same is true for speaking and thus the schools have concentrated on reading and writing. "In recent years, the schools have realized the mistake of this over-emphasis on reading and writing skills and have made great progress in bringing speaking into the language arts curriculum, but we have scarcely made a beginning in listening."

In developing listening skills, teachers should place first emphasis upon the necessity for courteous listening. Here the younger children should be taught

to recognize the need of giving full attention to the speaker and of respecting the opinions of others in discussion. The development of skill in informative and critical listening should be emphasized as the pupil matures—with young people becoming sensitive to their susceptibility to the various propaganda techniques. The high school student must learn to analyze the sources of authority for the statements which he hears through such media as radio, motion pictures, and television.

The major part of this publication is given to a series of units assigned to each grade level in the common learnings program. In each of these units there is a fairly extensive list of learning activities, many of which relate to some phase of listening. Thus, it is in the study of these units that listening is utilized as a means of helping the pupils achieve the unit objectives. As one example, Unit One for the seventh grade is designed to develop skill in communication through becoming acquainted with "Our School." Some of the listening activities utilized are: (1) Making appointments and interviews, (2) Introducing oneself and associates, (3) Holding interviews, (4) Leavetaking, (5) Making oral reports regarding school personnel, and (6) Participating in a panel which summarizes regulations and customs.

Montgomery County Public Schools,

The Language Arts—A Guide for Elementary Schools. Rockville, Maryland, 1956.

This course of study is divided into nine parts: (1) Listening, (2) Speaking, (3) Reading, (4) Literature, (5) Library, (6) Written Expression, (7) Spelling, (8) Handwriting, and (9) Interrelationships. In the listening section the authors point out a number of opportunities available during the school day for giving the children experiences in effective listening. Most important they list a number of skills which combine to make effective listening—and suggest appropriate learning activities in connection with each of these skills. The skills themselves are classified under four major headings: (1) How to Listen Attentively and Accurately, (2) How to Listen Appreciatively, (3) How to Listen Creatively, and (4) How to Listen Analytically and Critically.

Here is one illustration as to the activities used in the development of one of the specific skills. The skill is that of listening to recognize the main ideas, the supporting ideas, and the sequence of these ideas. Three suggested activities are: (1) Listening to the reading of a paragraph, a chapter, or whole section and taking notes of main ideas; (2) Summarizing by writing a paragraph, making an outline, or giving a report being sure of details and sequence; and (3) Listening to a recording of a story to identify the main events.

DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*

School of Education, New York University

INTERPRETING OUR HERITAGE. By Freeman Tilden. Chapel Hill. University of North Carolina Press. 1957. \$3.50.

This book sets forth the basic principles upon which rich interpretations can be made of our parks, museums, and historical areas. Millions of Americans visit these spots annually and most of them are in a care-free holiday mood. There is, however, available to them, if they so desire, a type of education that is unique. Interpretation can lead these visitors into paths of greater understanding and deeper appreciation of our heritage. Teachers will find much in this book that will help them plan and carry out more meaningful field trips to museums, historic spots, and to our great parks.—W. P. S.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION. By Robert Hoppock. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$6.75.

Robert Hoppock has written a most comprehensive and thorough text in this volume. Three aspects of occupational guidance are covered: Where to get occupational information; how to use it in counseling; and how to use it in teaching. The volume has been designed for use in the training of counselors, teachers, psychologists, rehabilitation officers, social workers, employment interviewers, personnel directors, librarians, parents, school and college administrators, and the like. Despite this wide range of people, the volume has much to say to each. Here are facts about jobs, ways of finding out even more information, and much that is necessary for one to have in order to earn a living and living a satisfactory life. An excellent text—very well organized, terse, and sound in both approach and content.—William P. Sears

THE OXFORD COMPANION TO THE THEATRE. Second Edition. Edited by Phyllis Hartnoll. N. Y. Oxford University Press. 1957. \$11.50

This is the second edition (the first edition appeared in 1951) of a most useful one-volume encyclopedia of the theatre. The

volume is all-inclusive and covers all countries and all periods. There are rather lengthy articles on the history of the theatre in each country from ancient Greece to contemporary United States. Such topics as stage design, theatre structure, lighting, make-up, acoustics, costume and scenery receive adequate treatment. And just to give a hint as to the volume's comprehensive nature, there are articles on ballet, burlesque, showboats, opera, playbills, radio drama, Punch and Judy, the Negro in the American theatre, and repertory theatre movements. A must for every college drama department.

—William P. Sears

THE NEW CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY. Volume I, The Renaissance, 1493-1520. Volume VII, The Old Regime, 1713-1763. N. Y. Cambridge University Press. 1957. \$7.50 per volume.

These are two volumes in the *New Cambridge Modern History*. This series has been planned by Sir George Clark and will eventually comprise fourteen volumes. The first volume covers the period from 1493 to 1520. The various chapters examine the social and economic structure of a Europe about to establish trade and colonies in the New World, the intellectual and artistic movements that constitute the Renaissance, the position of the Church on the eve of the Reformation, the rise of national states, the concepts of Empire, and the growing menace of Islam. Volume Seven, which appears concurrently, looks into the political, military and diplomatic history of the period from 1713 to 1763. Especial attention is given to the emergence of Prussia and Russia as European powers and to the rivalry of England and France in the New World, in India, and on the high seas. International trade, technological progress, and intensive colonization were characteristics of the period. Europe was slowly freeing itself from the domination of the aristocracy and exchanging this domination for that of the urban popula-

tions and bourgeois administrators. Both volumes are the work of numerous specialists, scholars in their respective fields.

—William P. Sears

THE LIFE OF SIR JOHN ELIOT. By Harold Hulme. N. Y. New York University Press. 1957. \$6.75.

This scholarly biography of Sir John Eliot is the result of some twenty years of careful research and study on the part of the author, a professor of history at New York University. Eliot died in the Tower during the reign of Charles the First, a martyr to free speech. Professor Hulme advances and sustains the point that Eliot maintained the same theory of kingship as did James the First. Eliot is pictured as a man of considerable means, of great oratorical brilliance and ambition. He was nevertheless, possessed of little ability and less spiritual depth. Yet he played a vital part in the constitutional drama of the seventeenth century. He would have been shocked, had he lived, to see the extent to which the Great Rebellion, of which he was master architect, went.—William P. Sears

THE THEATRE IN SOVIET RUSSIA. By Nikolai A. Gorchakow. N. Y. Columbia University Press. 1957. \$10.00.

Here is an important contribution to the literature of the contemporary theatre. It is a history of the Russian theatre in the twentieth century, by a man who worked at it from 1918 to 1940. The book gives a full explanation of the Russian theatre's great influence on the theatres of other nations. The author traces the growth and decline of one of the most significant phases of the world's theatre. It was with the founding of the Moscow Art Theatre in 1898 that Russian drama began to quicken. Using excellent primary sources, the author traces the contributions of Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko to the Moscow Art Theatre and the mutually helpful relationships with Chekhov. The now famous Stanislavsky method is analyzed and its principles described. The work of Meyerhold is highly praised and Mr. Gorchakov sees in Meyerhold the very model of a creative theatre person. Other figures considered include Tairov, Evreinov, Komisarzhnevsky, and Vakhtangov. The influences of the February and October revolutions on

the theatre are traced and there is a colorful chapter on the various theatres that arose to serve the needs of the people in the rural areas, in various social classes to whom the theatre had been unknown, and in various political and vocational groups. The author concludes his study by pointing out the ways the Soviet authorities employed to destroy the artistic freedom of the Russian theatre that had become so exciting and creative in the years after the Revolution. A definite history of the Russian theatre of our time and one that will serve our students of the theatre well.—William P. Sears

THE SEVENTEEN BOOK OF YOUNG LIVING. By Enid A. Haupt. N. Y. McKay. 1957. \$4.95.

Here is a "must" for every school library and for every home in which children are growing up. The book deals with many phases of everyday living that interest, confuse, and perplex teen-agers. From the conventions, general etiquette to matters dealing with the unfolding world of sex, the volume is truly comprehensive. There are five major sections: Getting Along With Yourself; Getting Along With Girls; Getting Along With Boys; Becoming An Adult; and The Seventeen Party Notebook. What is unique about the book is the engaging way in which it is written. Here is no series of hide-bound ukases from a self-appointed pope of propriety—rather it is a warm and intelligent approach to the process of growing up. Deans of students, grade advisors, and parents will want to see that their teen-agers get to this volume. The rest will be a wholesome interaction between the author and the young people.

—William P. Sears

THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL. By Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$6.50.

The job of the school principal, on both the elementary and secondary levels, is carefully delineated in this comprehensive text. Stress is put upon the common elements of the work of both the elementary principal and his counterpart in the secondary school. However, differentiation is made whenever a function varies significantly in one or the other areas. The range of duties and respon-

sibilities, are realistically set forth and both principles and practices of sound administration are presented. The text is a valuable one and one that prospective, beginning, and seasoned principals should mark, read and inwardly digest.—William P. Sears

A TRAVELER IN ROME. By H. V. Morton. N. Y. Dodd, Mead. 1957. \$6.00.

H. V. Morton is well known to American readers for his travel books. He is, however, much more than a mere observer of monuments. He is a penetrating and sensitive interpreter and a charming narrator. A *Traveler in Rome* tells much of the history of the Eternal City and a good deal about the present-day city. Those who plan to visit Rome for the first time will find the book most informative and those who already know this mother city of the Western World will be delighted with Mr. Morton's observations. Excellent for teachers planning a summer holiday in Italy.—William P. Sears

SEVEN STEPS TO CREATIVE CHILDREN'S DRAMATICS. By Pamela Prince Walker. New York. Hill and Wang, Inc. \$3.00

Teachers may be gravely misled by the title of this book. Creative dramatics, as generally understood in educational circles, emphasizes the development of the individual child. *Creative Children's Dramatics* might better have been called *Seven Steps for Producing a Child Actor*. Creative dramatics should be concerned with the process, not with the end product. The aim of this book seems to be to develop the stage skills of children in order to present a finished theatrical performance. The seven steps of actor's training described by the author are an adaptation of sophisticated theories derived in large part from Stanislavsky. They seem more appropriate for a professional academy than a regular elementary school.

A chapter on "How to Produce a Play" would be useful to a Children's Theatre director, but not to a leader in creative dramatics. The texts of three complete plays take up more than half of this brief book, producing rights for which are held by its publishers.

Dagny Blanchard
Elementary Consultant
Port Washington
New York

HOW TO BE ACCEPTED BY THE COLLEGE OF YOUR CHOICE. By Benjamin Fine. Channel Press. Great Neck, New York. 1957.

Secondary school students and their parents, influenced no doubt by somewhat premature use of the terms "tidal wave of students" and "wartime bulge of population," are really in urgent need of some clear answers to questions relating to college admissions.

Mr. Benjamin Fine's compact work goes a long way toward filling this need. In this book parent and student may find sober discussion of such topics as the criteria involved in judging admissions applications and the procedural steps included in the processing of applications. The author also includes sound advice as to when and how young people might start preparing for college. An appended chart, described as a "College Fact-Finder," should prove valuable to anyone interested in spot information about a particular college or colleges.

In removing the element of mystery from basic questions affecting college admissions, Mr. Fine has here performed a valuable service.

Thomas P. Robinson
Director of Admissions
New York University

RAISING A CHILD. By Marion E. Ross. N. Y. Pageant Press, Inc. 1957. \$3.00.

CHILD DRAMA. By Peter Slade. N. Y. Philosophical Library. 1955. \$10.00

WORKING MOTHERS AND THE DAY NURSERY. By Ethel S. Beer. N. Y. Whiteside, Inc. and William Morrow & Company. 1957. \$3.50.

Here are three books which will prove of value to teachers and parents alike. In the first book, Ross brings thirty years of experience in working with children into this valuable volume. In twenty-five brief chapters, she presents such topics as your child's ability, a sense of direction, time to grow, caring enough for discipline, and teen-age problems. The next volume, *Child Drama* is a pioneer work in its field. Every parent and teacher as well as drama enthusiasts will welcome this contribution. Divided into three

parts, the first describes new ways of assessing child's play, the second reports work in the schools, while the third includes various types of children's theatres, films, puppets, masks, etc. The third volume by Ethel Beer deals with practicalities, such as the organization, the functions, goals, personnel, financing, and coordination of day nurseries with the community as a whole. Case histories add interest to the volume.

—S. M. Amatora.

CERTAIN LANGUAGE SKILLS IN CHILDREN
Their Development and Interrelationships
by Mildred C. Templin. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1957. \$4.00.

This monograph reports on a study the purpose of which was twofold: (1) to describe the growth from 3 to 8 years of four aspects of language: articulation of speech sounds, speech sound discrimination, sentence structure, and vocabulary, and (2) to investigate the interrelations of these aspects of language over the age range indicated. There were 480 children, 240 boys and 240 girls, in the group which was subdivided into eight subsamples by age. The results of this study are especially important because few studies of language growth in young children have been conducted with significant numbers of cases over a five-year period and few have tried to investigate more than one aspect of language. The present study therefore is of inestimable value to those interested in any of the four areas investigated therein.

Dorothy Mulgrave
Professor of Education
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Enjoy Literature *at* School

By LELAND B. JACOBS

Professor of Education

Teachers College, Columbia University

EVERY YEAR many fine new books are made available for children—books to give them enjoyment, books that tell them stories, that extend and refine their exploration of the real and the fanciful, that give them information, that affect their perceptions of their social and psychological world. Some of these books are very easy reading; some challenge the young reader at the outer edges of his reading skill. Some of these books will confirm the experiences that the individual has had; others will extend his experiences—perhaps will open up whole new realms of ideas and values to him.

With such a richness of resources in books available for use in the school, from nursery school on, what can we who teach do to bring children and literature together?

We can read to children. In this age of radio and recordings and television, we must continue to read to children. For, important as these other media are, they are no substitutes for reading aloud. There is intimacy and personal interaction in the reading aloud that the marvels of electronics cannot achieve. There is the joy of shared moments of heightened sensitivity to beauty. There is at least the potential of honestly de-

veloping selectivity in the matter of taste on the part of the listeners. There is the possibility of opening up to children new types of reading which they will continue to pursue on their own.

As we read to children, over the years, we can give them exciting experiences with old literature and new literature, with the classics and the contemporaneous, with the fictional and the informational, with prose and poetry. And perhaps most important of all, we can meaningfully demonstrate the abundant harvest of enjoyment and illumination that books can give.

We can acquaint children with books new to them. As well as reading aloud, we can share books with children in other ways. We can call their attention to new titles that may appeal to them. Teachers can read episodes or chapters to give children tastes of what fare they would get if they read the books sampled. To make books, old and new, available as they relate to on-going curriculum experiences extends children's acquaintance with literary materials, an acquaintance which affects their understandings and insights into various aspects of life and living. Thus books become tools to the exploration of man's dreams and destiny.

Moreover, by appropriate planning, teachers are able to give children opportunities to share their recent reading with the group. Sometimes this is done orally, through children reading favorite selections, or commenting on a book, or interviewing another child about a book that both have read. Other times, written communication serves a similar end: a bulletin board for posting suggestions of books recommended for other children to read; signs and posters "selling" favorite books; and critical commentaries available for other children to read as clues to their own book selection. There are but a few examples of children's writing experiences aimed at acquainting others with what they might choose to read.

Whatever forms the extension of acquaintanceship may take, the basic idea back of the use of any device is that when children are regularly and well-informed about available books, there are greater possibilities that a child and a book will be found together.

We can have available a balanced collection of literature. Every reader, of course, is an individual reader—individual in reading competence, in taste, in purpose for reading. This fact implies the need for providing a great variety of reading matter if every child is to get the right book for him. There will be children who, having one way or another been convinced that they cannot read well, will choose easy books—books with familiar content, large type, wide margins, pages that "turn fast." There will be children with quite special interests—horses, transportation, biography, space travel, electronics, mysteries. Still other children, though a minority, will read the unusual, the precious book—the book that in content, or emphasis, or style calls for marked

reading strengths in skill and in taste. While other types of readers might be mentioned, here is clear enough indication, it would seem, that teachers need to scrutinize their situations astutely to see that there are several books available which will appeal to each child. Thus the child is assured the chance to get together with material from which he can get both meanings and be delighted in mind and spirit.

Moreover, we do well to see that book collections for the children whom we teach are not static—that there are enough changes in the book collection from time to time so that the child keeps watching for the appearance of a new book friend.

In schools which, happily, have a good school library, the co-operative teamwork of the school librarian and the classroom teacher can be a great asset in assuring every child the right to have just the book that pleases him at this moment in his life. When teacher and librarian work together in the library and in the classroom, children can have two experts helping them find the books from which they will make their own selections.

We can use multi-sensory resources concomitantly. Literature of the printed page can be effectually complemented by literature in other forms—films, filmstrips, radio and television programs, recordings, children's theater productions, and the like. These, too, have a literary bearing. They are, in and of themselves, art forms. That these art forms sometimes are in bad taste or cheap in content is another matter, does not deny them as media for aesthetic fulfillment.

We who teach will do well to provide children with those movies and other appropriate multi-sensory experiences

that augment the appreciation and enjoyment derived from the printed word. Sometimes these multi-sensory resources will best serve as preparation for reading experiences. Sometimes they will tell the same plot or ideas that a book has already told in words, but, by employing a different medium of expression, will heighten or amplify or in some way give new dimensions to the reading that has been done.

The teacher who is clear about the inter-related use of literary resources will keep alert to the potentials of various graphic media for providing boys and girls with their literature in various forms as well as in various contents, to the end that children develop appreciation of various ways of information-giving and story-telling, and, we hope, in discriminative taste.

We can encourage children's creative responses to literature. When children have had a thoroughly satisfying experience with literature, they frequently wish to preserve the experience by translating it into another art form and by sharing it with others. Sometimes this is achieved through other forms of verbalization—interpretative oral reading, reporting, dramatization, choral reading, or original stories and poems. Sometimes the most vivid experiences and impressions from the reading are caught in color and line—in pictures, dioramas, roller movies. Sometimes they are interpreted in mass—in kinds of sculpturing appropriate to children. Whatever experiences are thus preserved, they should be self-selected by the reader, and put into that form which is meaningful and satisfying to him. Of course, there will be many times when the burning memory or picture in the mind will be enough—an invisible product but nonetheless a truly significant one.

The teacher can encourage children in their creative responses to literature by making this a choice of activity, by making available time and materials for creating, by displaying and sharing the products. The teacher's enthusiasm for children's creative endeavors thus developed will surely be a worthy stimulant to this means of preserving one's best moments in reading. Relatedness in new forms adds one kind of significant depth dimension to the response made to the verbal symbols. The creative products thus developed become a testament to the joys of reading.

We can relate literature to other school experiences. Since literature explores and illumines life, it will, of course, deal with content that is intimately related to curriculum content in various areas. In the social studies, there is abundance in fiction and informational writing, and some poetry, that relates to what is being studied. Whether the focus of the content is chiefly geographical, historical, or social problem, there will be literature that can contribute to children's insights about time, place, and conditions. In science there is a growing body of informational books and fiction that extends children's scientific knowledge and thinking. So too, in mathematics, in language, in the arts, many books can be had for extending and refining the general education and the special interests of boys and girls.

The teacher who sees that literature can be an effectual means of deepening children's comprehension of this world and its manifold activities, of man's searchings and accomplishments, of man's accumulation and use of knowledge will add a significant dimension to children's learnings. Such a teacher will make provisions for using literature as a pertinent resource in the various

contents that make up the school experience. He will be contributing simultaneously to the child through the enrichment of the curriculum content and the delight in knowing through reading.

We can evaluate individual growth in reading preferences and directions. If we believe that one satisfying reading experience leads toward another, then any one book is significant, experientially, in and of itself. But it is also to be viewed in the directional stream of what has come before and what comes after. In other words, we who teach need to get perspective on the total designing of each child's developing self-selected reading pattern. To help a child select each book is desirable, to be sure, but to help a child get what he wants to read in what may be a rather subtle sequence from one book to the next is equally important.

This self-selection on the part of the child and guidance in selection on the part of the teacher implies evaluation. Some of the selection considerations relate to quantity of reading: How much is this child reading? Is this amount too little or too much? Is the quantity of reading in any way related to the depth of the content of his book selections? Is he pacing the amount of independent reading effectually?

Another consideration relates to type of content. Is this child getting varied ideas from his reading, though, on the surface, he may seem to be reading continuously on the same topic? Does this particular content seem to be contributing positively to developing his taste in reading? Does this content, in some way, seem to extend this child's growing

edges of learning, his exploration of meanings of life and living?

In helping a child in his self-selection of what to read next, we need also to be somewhat aware of the child's bases for book choices. What does the child seem to be seeking in his reading? What techniques does he use for making his choices—sampling techniques, that is? Why does he not finish reading some books?

When we teachers evaluatively approach our assistance to children in their book selection, we are preparing ourselves not only to be of greatest help to each individual child, but, simultaneously, we are getting our directions for reading to the group, for introducing new books, for suggesting things to individuals that they might do creatively in relation to their reading, and the like. Through evaluation we are planning for further experiences with literature both individually and collectively in our own classroom.

Since the literature for children is here in great quantity, variety, and beauty, and since American children in tremendous numbers can and do read, we who teach need to gear our practices to keeping the turnpikes to further reading always open. By our practices we either give children the green light, the red light, or amber. We note the curves, and bumps, and highway repairs. We provide light refreshment and nourishing diet, as the need arises. And, at the end of travel together, the child collects the fare—in bright coins of fond memories, heightened sensitivity, significant insights and perceptions, and faith in reading.

My Friend Paula

By WALTER B. BARBE

University of Chattanooga

ONCE in every teacher's life there comes a child who stands out from all the others. For some this child comes early in their teaching career; for others, the child does not come for many years. But as certainly as every good teacher loves to teach, some one child will stand out.

And when my friends ask me why I teach, I can only tell them about the child whom I can never forget. There are many children I will never forget, but above all these stands one child. I shall call this child Paula because that is her name. It would somehow take away part of her personality if I were to call her anything else.

I work in a reading center, where we see many children who are having difficulty with reading. Some of them want to learn, others don't. Some of them come with the greatest of enthusiasm, for this is their opportunity to learn; others come because they must, expecting nothing but more of the same type of thing which has failed them in the past. The day Paula came to the Reading Center marked the beginning of a new period. She arrived, not to learn from us but to teach us. And oh the things we learned that day, when Paula came our way.

With clenched fists and bowed legs, Paula stomped into the Center. Never one to be taken back by a new situation, even at the age of eight, Paula had learned a technique for disarming people. "I wanna see the man who owns this place!" she demanded. Being the

one who is nominally in charge of the Reading Center, I stepped forward. Being unaccustomed to such a bold approach I was, to say the least, taken back. At this point, I noticed for the first time a lady and another child about Paula's age standing in the hall. Before anyone could say anything more the lady began explaining that the little boy was her child and that she took neither any blame or responsibility for this outspoken little girl who stood with her hands on her hips and her feet wide apart waiting for an answer to her question. The mother of the boy, being somewhat more in awe of a "reading specialist" than Paula, was obviously quite distressed. Undoubtedly realizing the need for someone to say something, Paula, who had caused this dumbfounded silence, said, "Before I go any further, I want to get one thing straight. I'm not going to read and so don't try to make me." Since I knew that Paula was in the third grade, and obviously would not have been sent to the Reading Center unless she had some reading problem, the light began to dawn. She did not know how to read and was afraid that she would be exposed. With some degree of complacency, for I had confronted this problem before, I began assuring her that she did not have to read unless she wanted to. This was the last complacency that I was ever to feel around Paula for what should have worked never did and what worked with other children was certain to fail with Paula.

The approach that "you don't have to read unless you want to," usually works after the child feels secure in the Reading Center. He is usually quite willing to attempt some short reading paragraph. Paula, being somewhat skeptical of an adult's promise, reminded me many times that morning that I had told her that she did not have to read. She seemed almost to delight in the fact that she had control over me because obviously everything I was doing was attempting to lead her into the desire for reading. It became almost a game, and one in which I was a complete loser. Paula did not make any attempt to read for me for three visits, but on the fourth visit she admitted that she could not read and so there was no reason to try.

In getting acquainted with Paula, I asked her if she liked to read and she replied, "I would if I knew how." And the only answer which I could think of was, "who wouldn't."

In Paula's first visit she was administered an individual intelligence test. Test results at school in the first grade had indicated that Paula was about average in ability, but retesting later seemed to indicate low average mental ability. Paula had lots of fun with the individual intelligence test. She defined the word "conquer" as "hit her on the head" and said that if she were to find a child who was lost from its parents that she would take it home and raise it. She was aware that these answers were not correct, but she seemed to enjoy being different. She said that she had been told enough times how different she was and she didn't really care because she didn't want to be like the others. But even in spite of all of Paula's fooling around, she still scored in the superior range of intelligence. When

confronted with the tests results, she replied, "Don't waste your time telling me, I never thought I was dumb. You had better tell some of those other teachers." Something seemed to click about this time and I knew that Paula and I were going to get along alright. I did not know what could be done next, but I knew that something could be done. I knew that the referral which said that Paula was a "non-reader" was wrong, for to be a non-reader means that the child will never be able to read. Then and there I said, "This is the child I am going to help."

Getting to know Paula was a form of self-therapy. She asked far more questions about me than I did about her. I wondered sometimes just who was interviewing whom. But I decided that this was alright, for here was a child who was getting what she apparently needed most—the complete attention of someone who was interested in her. Paula was not a pretty little girl, but with her straight hair and bangs which seemed to frame her plump little face like a picture window, there was something about her that was very attractive. The better I came to know Paula, the more certain I was that here was really a beautiful child. But then, I find this to be true not just with children but with adults also. The more I know about a person and understand his problems, the better I like him.

The day finally arrived when Paula was to come to the Reading Center for her first lesson. And what a day it was—summertime, blazing hot sun, and above all else, five squirming little boys in the class. It took less than five minutes that first day to find who was the toughest child in the bunch. Paula won.

As all teachers know, in every group of children there is a leader. To fail in

reaching this child is a certainty of failure with the other children. To succeed with the child opens an avenue toward easy success with all the rest of the children. Had I been wiser, I would never risked the other five children with such a problem case as Paula.

Consistency has always been the dominant thing in my thinking as the major requirement for a good teacher. But with this consistency, flexibility was, I thought, also necessary. In less than two minutes I knew that my usual methods were not going to work. The seven of us sat down and drew up the rules by which we would abide. It was my desire to use a positive approach and say such things as "everyone will do his best" and the like. Paula put a stop to this. "If we've got to do them, then they've got to say either 'don't' or 'no' and so, the rules of our class came out as these;

1. no loafing
2. no interrupting one and another
3. no leaving the room during the reading lesson

The first two rules were really theirs, the third one was mine. The next step was to make these children understand the rules were not to be broken. After thirty requests for a drink of water during the first lesson, on a blistering hot summer day, I began to wonder if I were not being too rigid. I had never before been so thirsty, but kept thinking that if she would not remind me of it I might make it to the end of the period myself. We survived the first lesson, but there can be little compliment paid to the teaching that went on.

We quickly learned that Paula's definition of loafing and my definition of loafing were quite different. But since I was the teacher, and for no other reason in Paula's understanding, the rules were to be interpreted by me. Her de-

mands for her "rights," in a vote by the other children were quickly squelched by me. I already knew who would win in any such a vote.

The next day Paula delighted her five little boy friends by coming into the classroom through the window. The window, some ten feet above the yard, required a scaling maneuver which only an agile child could have accomplished. Seeing my look of disapproval, amid the joyful glee of the other children, Paula said, "There is no rule against coming in the window." I knew then where the battle line had been drawn. She was willing to abide by my rules, the three which we had established the day before, but no more were to be added. Being unable to foresee anything other than entering through the window, which I supposed I could get used to if I had to, I went along with this unorthodox entree.

From then on, each day Paula had another thing to pull on me which was not governed by the rules. She wore shorts, a hat, chewed gum (which I found particularly objectionable but which she reminded us was not "covered in the rules"), parked her bicycle in the hall outside the classroom and brought a cup of water to the door of the classroom to be gulped down the second the class was to begin. But when Paula discovered that she could do these things providing she still abided by the three rules the group had set, she settled down into what resembled an elementary school pupil. She never confessed that these three rules were the first three that she had ever obeyed. She said that it was a lot more fun to think of ways to get around the rules than it was to do what they said.

Beginning with a basic sight word vocabulary, Paula demonstrated a re-

markable ability for learning. She was rather fast at memorization and when she discovered she was really better at it than the five boys, she developed a sort of pride at being able to learn faster than they did.

Paula's greatest difficulty was remaining in her seat. Only one method, not found in the usual educational textbook, worked. In an affectionate manner, I left my hand on Paula's shoulder at all times. When the pressure began to be a little stronger coming up, I placed a little more pressure going down. The balance of the two kept Paula somewhere near the seat of her chair. When she began giving in to the pressure and sliding closer to the floor it became necessary to lift my hand and sometimes bring her with me. Whenever the attention was too far away from Paula, the pressure on my hand reminded me that she was still with us.

Working with Paula was a continuous series of trials and errors. But undoubtedly the greatest mistake was when we came upon the word "any". "What does it mean?", asked Paula. Being somewhat fluent, I talked around what it might mean. I used an example, but I could never quite tell Paula what "any" did mean. Paula enjoyed the position in which she had placed me, but finally relieved me by saying, "Oh well, then draw me a picture of it." Of course, I was unable to do this. Being in as deep as this, I should have known to quit. And we had been over the word so many times, I had to say it. "Paula, if it is the last thing I ever do, I'm going to teach you to read this word." To this day, some five years later, Paula still says when she comes to the word "any", "there's that word that even the man down at the Reading Center couldn't teach me."

Paula actually learned so rapidly that she was able to help some of the boys in the class. One day, a little boy was having such difficulty remembering certain words that I asked Paula to take him out of the room to help him. This was her first experience at being a teacher. She left with great pride. When the little boy came back, I was somewhat distressed for he seemed to have even more difficulty than before. I asked Paula how he had done outside of the room and she said that he had learned the words. I was completely puzzled until I discovered that the little boy was constantly making the same errors as he read the story. The word "boy" was always being read as "Baby" and the word "and" was being read as "in". After thinking this over, I confronted Paula with it before the class the next day. She readily admitted that she had told the boy the wrong words. When I asked her why she had done this, she explained that he was catching on too quickly and she was afraid that he would get to be better than she was. Paula had been too good a teacher, for the child forgot every word that I told him but seemed to always know the incorrect words that Paula had told him.

Keeping Paula's attention on the lesson was quite difficult. To do this, little tricks were necessary. Since all the children had completed the third grade and had been introduced to cursive writing, they objected to any writing on the board being in manuscript. Being of the old school myself, I had never changed the manner in which I wrote the letter "R". Paula refused to read any word in which I made this error. She said, "It looks too much like the letter 'n'." She was so indignant about this, that I decided to put it to some use. She was given the assignment of correcting me

anytime when I made my "R" incorrectly. No other child was allowed to do this. Whenever her attention began to wane, I would sometimes intentionally write a word using the old-fashioned "R". Paula soon became so busy watching for the letter "R" that she became somewhat engrossed in the lesson. Almost in spite of herself she began to learn to read.

Paula rejected from the very beginning stories about any little girl. She wanted to read about little boys "Doing somethin". After she had been at the Center for about two years, she asked to be allowed to read a few pages from a novel which I had been reading and she had seen on my desk. It was about a man who had crossed the Atlantic in a boat alone. The first page had many very difficult words but Paula was stumbling along reading silently until she came to one sentence and then she began laughing loudly. I said, "What on earth are you laughing about, Paula? There isn't anything funny in that book." "Oh, yes, there is," she said. "I'm reading about biting gals. As she had been learning her phonic rules, she had only to be reminded about the influence of the final "e" on a word, and its effect on the sound of the preceding vowel. She was then able to read the word as "gale" but, as she said, "It isn't nearly so funny that way."

When Paula was fairly well along in reading ability, she went with me to speak before one of the teachers meetings. As I was wearing a lapel microphone, in order that Paula's and my conversation could be heard by the audience, it was not necessary for either of us to speak loudly. Before we were introduced a man announced from the front of the platform the menu for lunch that day. Paula leaned over to-

ward me and, placing her hand over her mouth, whispered into the mike, "They don't have one thing I like". This was so much the opinion of the entire audience that they were overcome with laughter by the time we were finally introduced. Needless to say, the meeting was highly entertaining. Paula was truly a showwoman and enjoyed the attention which she was able to get.

During the question and answer period, a teacher asked how to keep children from knowing what group they are in. Paula, who was sitting on the stage came forward and said, "Let me answer that." She said, "Well, you have four groups. You have a smart group, an average group, a dumb group, and a very dumb group." To the next question, "And what group are you in, Paula?" She quickly replied, "Are there any more questions?"

After about two and a half years of work with Paula, seeing her twice a week during the year and five days a week for one month each summer, Paula had at last arrived at the point where she was close to the reading level of the other children in the classroom. Feeling very proud when Paula came to the Reading Center for her last lesson, I asked her if she were not very pleased with herself. In a very off-handed manner, she replied, "I could have done it all the time if I had wanted to." My only reply to this was, "I only wish that you had wanted to sooner." She was so right in her answer, but it took so long to build the desire.

Then I did not see Paula for a while, although I did hear favorable reports on her progress from time to time. But her name came up quite forcefully at a poster contest. The Reading Center was having a book fair and each school was invited to submit posters. There, on the

largest sheet of paper, was Paula's entry. It was a picture of a bookshelf filled with hundreds of books, painstakingly drawn by hand. While I was not one of the judges, I exerted that influence which teachers use so often on the children and Paula received a prize. Since I was the one who had exerted the influence, I was given the privilege of delivering the prize of a book to her at her school. Arriving at lunch time, I went up to find her. Finally I heard a

voice say "Hi" and I knew that she had found me first. When everyone was quiet she stormed over to where I was and said, "Come over here, I want you to meet someone." It was her teacher that she was taking me to and she said, "Miss Brown, I want you to meet my friend, the man who taught me how to read."

Then and there I knew it was all worthwhile and I was ready to go back to work with another Paula.

BOOK REVIEWS

FUNDAMENTAL CHILD PSYCHOLOGY. By Justin Pikunas. Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The Bruce Publishing Company. 1957. \$3.50.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND PERSONALITY. By Paul Henry Mussen and John J. Conger. N. Y. Harper & Brothers Publishers. 1956. \$6.00.

INTRODUCTORY CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY. By Sol L. Garfield. N. Y. The Macmillan Company. 1957.

Fundamental Child Psychology is a book that will be welcomed by every teacher. Divided into four major groups, the chapters offer not only basic concepts, terms, and methods, but also discussions of various phases of development, basic factors and dimensions of the child's personality, and also such topics as child guidance which is frequently neglected in similar books.

Mussen and Conger's volume is divided into five sections dealing with, respectively, the pre-natal period, the first two years, the pre-school years, middle childhood, and adolescence. The authors endeavor to integrate the vast body of data of child development with

general behavior theory. Concepts derived from psychoanalysis and anthropology are also included.

The third volume offers a valuable introduction to the whole field of clinical psychology. The author endeavors to develop a critical, evaluative attitude in the student. Examples are used from actual clinical situations.—S. M. Amatora.

THE BEST PLAYS, 1956-1957. Edited by Louis Kronenberger. N. Y. Dodd, Mead. 1957. \$6.00.

The Burns Mantle Yearbook is a must for every school and college library. Now edited these past few years by Louis Kronenberger, it is an indispensable handbook of the contemporary. Among the plays included this year are Terence Rattigan's *Separate Tables*, O'Neill's *Long Day's Journey into Night*, Laurent's *A Clearing in the Woods*, Anouilh's *The Waltz of the Toreadors*, William's *Orpheus Descending*, and Greene's *The Potting Shed*. There are, of course, the usual statistics that make this volume such a valuable handbook.—William P. Sears

What is Poetry?

By ANN ESS MORROW

Pontiac High School

Pontiac, Michigan

"WHAT IS POETRY, Miss Rogers?" And Tommy waits to hear. The other children, too, wear eyes with question-marks.

Concepts Varied

"Why, Tom, there isn't just one answer," Miss Rogers smiles, "the way there is for 2 plus 2. There are as many definitions as there are boys and girls who ask. And all of them are right, yet none are wholly so. We only know that there are elements of truth in all."

She pauses as she takes a breath before she hurries on, for definition seems to hold a quality so personal that objectivity of statement is not easy to attain. "Only you can really know if a poem holds meaning for you."

"It sure don't mean a thing to me," alleges Bill, who wrestles hard with prose.

"I like it!" comes from Ruth Marie. "It makes me feel all fresh the way I do when I have had a shower, and it seems to give me brand new eyes and ears."

The teacher smiles understandingly and knows with Sandburg in his "Early Moon" that if she tries in prose to say what poetry is like, unconsciously she'll end by answering in poetry. At times like this, her thoughts are always leaping out in waves of words, it seems, instead of merely walking. It makes her think of when she was a little girl and tried in vain to brush the curl from her

hair that she wished momentarily were straight.

She cannot tell Tom truthfully that poetry is that which rimes or which has definite form and regular movement. So much of it does not. In free verse, too, its structured formlessness is form itself. So may be she had better tell him more concerning qualities of poetry than what is meant by it.

"Well, it doesn't have one meaning only, boys and girls, to which we say, 'There—that is right.' It's possible it has as many meanings as there are folks who read it. But all of it, when written skillfully, can waken us to those details which we might otherwise never notice. Like walking by a tree each day and seeing it as merely that—a tree and not a house or car. And then one day, when senses are awakened we see the beauty in its sweeping branches, the ruggedness of bark and gnarl, its majesty, and blending of the leaves with sunset colors. We see the charm of old words used new ways; we feel the glow of Sunday words, for weekday ones get worn out fast. Words that please are magic, for they awaken charm."

"I know," Henry volunteers. "A poet doesn't like to use a word that everybody uses. Instead of *says*, he *gasps* or *murmurs*. Vivid words we call them. Didn't you tell us that?"

"That's right, Henry," Miss Rogers nods. "Picture words are just like picture windows, aren't they? You peek

right through them and see things you couldn't have if blinds were tightly closed."

Emotional Aspect Significant

"You mean a poem's like a camera then?"

"Well, in a way, yet it is more than that. A camera that functions well will give an image of a bird, but poetry, well written makes us feel a certain way about that bird. We seem to sense that it was lonely in its flight or guided utterly by God. Or perhaps it makes us wish that we had wings and feathers, too, so we could fly like that."

"I don't know much about it," put in Dave, "but I sure like the way that sounds come out." And strangely, that is true of many of us, for poetry, like music, can communicate although one does not understand.

"I guess it's good you're telling us about all this," Mary put in wisely. "It helps us read it better when we understand about it."

"Is that why Peter puts a rocking-chair in his? Because he doesn't know what makes it poetry, and so he simply lets it rock and roll?"

"Peter senses how it's put together and stresses that, instead of meaning," explains the teacher.

"I'm glad Miss Rogers knows what it's about. She always makes me feel the way I bet the poet felt when he was writing it," and Alice really means the tribute.

"It must be quite a bit like driving a car," states Ned, who cannot wait until he's old enough to start. "You're not supposed to stop at every block, but only when the traffic light is there and tells you to, or when a sign commands. And you shouldn't stop where the lines do unless a comma or a period says yes."

"No wonder you read poetry well! Ned's right." Miss Rogers tells the children. "It's punctuation marks that tell you where to stop."

"I think it's hard to read because the words are in a different order." Peter is sincere.

"That's why you have to understand it first," the teacher states. "Once you take the sentences apart and put them in their natural order and understand the words and what the poet means, then you can read them well when you have put them back."

"I like the way a poem matches sounds and meaning," Susan volunteers. "When something is described as big, it ought to sound that way when people read. They mustn't ever make it seem as if it just meant tiny."

"I know something!" Tom is glad to share his secret. "Words can sing, like birds," he vouches stoutly. "Sometimes when Miss Rogers reads, they really make a chorus."

"Why, thank you, Tom. Would you agree then, children, that poetry is much like spoken music?"

The whole class nods with one accord and not with sleepiness.

"If you were boys and girls with longer legs and arms, I'd tell you poetry is emotionalized thought expressed artistically."

At this the children all wear faces blank as paper in a brand new tablet.

"That means it's feeling that is cleverly described by using colorful words effectively," Miss Rogers explains. "And colorful words aren't merely red and blue and green. They're words that carry pictures. Please remember that."

Artistic Expression Stressed

Thus poetry becomes a revelation of artistry of thought-expression. Yet con-

cepts of what artistry means vary like people themselves. To some it represents a subtlety of speech; to others, it's perfection of the choice of words; and then again, it is the skillful handling of the subject. Truly the emotional aspect, submerged in prose and giving way to reason, is dominant in verse. Realization of this fact is a definite step toward more expressive reading.

Anyone of us who's able and who makes the effort may see a sunrise; that is factual like prose. But the poet sees it as the starting of a day that comes with gleam of glory—a day that is unique and soon to leave forever. Recognition of this fact reveals itself ideally in pitch and tone and reading tempo. Then lines that have been sleeping come alive.

Sordid Also Voiced

But poetry does not always stress with Teasdale in her "Barter" mood that

Life has loveliness to sell,
though even the uncouth and the un-
seemly can be blended into form of
harmony and beauty when language
used is sensuous with images. In many
cases, under guise of poetry, the sordid
is increased in ugliness, however—
almost as if the poet seems to feel an
obligation to bring out into the open
those thoughts we constantly inhibit be-
cause they are indelicate and unrefined.
Yet these same writers who, the censors
say, mistake freedom for license, would
no doubt do the same in prose if prose
became their vehicle.

Common Elements Found in Prose and Poetry

"But isn't poetry a lot like regular writing?" Johnny asks Miss Rogers, who knows indeed the elements of poetry are found in prose.

"Both use suggestion," Miss Rogers smiles. "That means the writer hints and lets us guess the rest, instead of stating facts so everything is told."

"We're not so sure we understand," the eyes of children seem to say.

"Well, when someone has been talking angrily and then it says she turned away, we sense perhaps that she is still upset—that maybe she will cry or grow more angry or just won't feel like doing anything at all. And yet the writer doesn't tell us that. We seem to know because of ways we've felt ourselves at times. Imagination helps so, too."

"I see now." Helen's words come tumbling out. "It's like saying, 'Christmas already?' That means it came real fast, the way the fire-drill did we had last week. And things come fast when people have a lot to do."

"That's right," the teacher approves. "Both kinds of writing use worthy thoughts as well—like love and sadness and pictures of people and nature all done in colorful words, instead of paint. Some pictures come in frames, you know, and others in paragraphs and stanzas."

"Tell us more, Miss Rogers."

"Language that is figurative is used in both. Now that's a big word, boys and girls, but big things need not always frighten. When we use that way of speech, we say that one thing's something that we simply know it's not, and yet it's not a lie because we are not trying to deceive—we only seek to make ideas more clear. For instance, we say Mary is an angel when we know she has no wings. But what we want the folks to know is that she's ever so good.

"And often words rush out in pretty patterns, whether one deals in poetry or prose. Both forms, too, have balance that children who wear bigger sizes call

parallel constructions. Here's an example: we shall either take a swim or have a movie party."

Such elements as these—the use of figurative language, the rhythm of parallel constructions, the patterning of words—though found in both, reach higher development in verse.

"Something else, boys and girls. Even though the things we sometimes read haven't yet happened to us, they are so real it almost seems as if they had. That makes it more fun, too, and helps us in the reading."

Sound A Primary Factor in Poetry

Truly in this ancient form of writing, there are life and meaning from the breadth of its appeal to individuals who might not have responded were there but one approach. Thus poetry is sound in balanced relation to other sound, the whole a patterned euphony. And know-

ing that, entails the obligation of doing justice to the sounds when poetry is read aloud, of using resonant tones and pleasing pitch and of adapting rate to listeners and to what is being read. It certainly is true that just as there are many concepts of poetry among people, so there are changing concepts in the individual.

Distinctions Not Always Apparent

Indeed, no Mason-Dixon line is drawn in literature to separate the metered black from white that is prosaic. Sometimes form itself is no criterion. Yet within it is a tendency toward patterned cadences more apparent in poetry than prose. Often, too, there is the gentle shading of the one into the other—an artistry of blending; thus often we find prose that is poetic and poetry that is like prose.

BOOK REVIEW

SHAKESPEARE: FROM RICHARD II TO HENRY V. By Derek Traversi. Stanford, California. Stanford University Press. 1957. \$4.25.

The four historical plays of Shakespeare's mature period—*Richard the Second*; *Henry the Fourth, Part I*; *Henry the Fourth, Part II*; and *Henry the Fifth*—are most carefully analyzed in this intelligent commentary. Mr. Traversi has achieved a high reputation as a Shakespeare scholar and his earlier work, *An Approach to Shakespeare*, has been widely acclaimed both in this country and in England. In the present work, Mr. Traversi analyzes the dramatic elements in the four plays and points out the unity of conception which prevails in this series of plays. His insights are mature and his presentation makes the book intensely interesting reading.

—William P. Sears

THE SEVEN LIVELY ARTS. By Gilbert Seldes. N. Y. Sagamore Press. 1957. \$4.95.

It was back in 1924 that Gilbert Seldes' provocative *The Seven Lively Arts* first appeared. The work has become a classic and it now appears in a revised edition. It is the same incisive book, brought up-to-date. The work marked a first venture in serious criticism of the popular arts in America. Mr. Seldes looks into the comic strips, the movies, musical comedy, vaudeville, radio, popular music, and the dance. The work now, as in 1924, will be hailed by college groups and denounced by those who feel they are belittled by its irreverent and outspoken jibes. With all his caustic and unabashed comment, Seldes re-affirms his faith in an America which is developing its own artistic tradition.

—William P. Sears

An Approach to Beginning Reading

By MARY L. GRAU

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MEETING THE NEEDS of fast learners is a problem that continually arises at the beginning reading stage. Many children enter the first grade with a readiness for reading; some can identify words and phrases; a few have already learned to read. How can these children be guided in reading? Too often differentiating the instruction means another variety of the same activity. Faster moving children are given more exercises, or a series of basal readers considered more difficult and must progress through the pre-primers and primers in sequential order. What a disappointment to those children who are ready to read but must wait until the teacher has provided several weeks of activity designed to develop readiness. What can be done for the child who is ready to read?

A procedure through which children are provided reading experiences has been tried by several first grade teachers. A brief account of this procedure is given here.

Which children are ready to read?

The first problem is to identify the rapid learners who are ready to read. Careful observation of children during the first two weeks of school as they participate in various school activities will reveal to the teacher many unique differences among them. The administration of reading readiness and mental

maturity tests will give additional data. The able learner, ready to read, will show many of the following characteristics:

- I. General behavior pattern
 - a. He has a keen curiosity and is not satisfied with mere repetition.
 - b. He shows more self direction and independence in working out problems.
 - c. He is eager to go beyond the particular lesson activity and desires further exploration of the problem.
 - d. He generalizes from specific examples to a principle and thinks more abstractly. Examples:

"A dog helps people. Sometimes dogs lead blind persons and sometimes they listen for burglars."

"A ball is a kind of toy. It is round and is made of rubber."
 - e. He is more original in his ideas and is more creative. Examples:

"We had a new baby kitten. It ran away. I think it was looking for its mother."

"The baby is laughing because the dog is running away from the ball."

- II. Language development
 - a. He uses a larger vocabulary more appropriately.
 - b. He can express ideas more clearly in oral language.
 - c. He uses a greater variety of sentences.
 - d. He can express ideas in sequence.
- III. Range of interests
 - a. He is interested in books and asks to have them read:

Flack, Marjorie, *Ask Mr. Bear*, New York, Macmillan, 1932.

Graham, Al, *Timothy Turtle*, New York, Viking, 1946.

Newberry, Clare, *Mittens*, New York, Harper, 1936.

Potter, Beatrix, *Tale of Peter Rabitt*, New York, Warne, 1914.

McClosky, Robert, *Blueberries for Sal*, New York, Viking, 1948.

Burton, Virginia, *Mike Milligan and His Steam Shovel*, Boston, Houghton, 1939.

Flack, Majorie, *Boats on the River*, New York, Viking, 1946.

Others
 - b. He has a variety of interests in his environment.
 - c. He persists at a worthwhile activity for a long period of time.

The teacher must evaluate carefully the data obtained from the standardized tests in relation to all data gained through observation. A plan for recording data regarding each child's ability should be accessible to each teacher. A usable record form follows:

The children selected for reading activities have a readiness score indicating

no delay; an IQ of 130 or above; a high rating on the observation list; and evidence of social and emotional maturity.

What kind of program is provided?

Since the children are fast learners and are ready to read, reading experiences with books of worth are provided from the beginning. The library table display is changed to show books relating to the aspect of the program being developed through experiences and activities resulting in chart records. Children are encouraged to select the books they wish to have read. A small group of children reads with the teacher. As the teacher reads a story to the children, they follow the same story in their own books. As a child recognizes a familiar part, he may read a line or two. Emphasis is placed on understanding concepts, the content, and the organization of the material. Opportunity is provided for children to respond in some way to the material through activities: making a list of characters in the story; identifying the sequence of events for dramatization; matching the name of the character with the appropriate action; etc. The teacher records these ideas on the board and children read them with her guidance. Lists of familiar words are kept for each child and these words recognized in new material and used in experience records in the classroom program.

- I. Choosing materials with which to begin.

A variety of materials is provided:

- a. The content relates to the center of interest that the class is developing.
- b. The material is of good literary quality.

Reading Readiness Record of Observations

Name _____

Age _____

	Anecdotes of Child's Responses and Behavior	High	Above Average	Average	Below Average
Characteristics					
Physical					
Emotional					
Social					
Range of Interests					
Language Development					
Observing					
gains ideas from pictures					
matches similar objects and words					
sees differences in objects and words					
Listening					
discriminates sounds					
listens with a purpose					
remembers items in sequence					
comprehends stories					
Following directions					
follows oral directions					
Speaking					
uses expressive vocabulary					
uses sentences					
converses in natural pleasing voice					
produces sounds correctly					

The following summary of levels of ability in language will serve as a guide in analyzing and interpreting the data gathered.

LANGUAGE INVENTORY

LEVELS	EXPRESSIVENESS	GENERAL MEANING--IDEAS	SENTENCE STRUCTURE	WORD MEANING	STORY COMPREHENSION	QUALITIES-SPEECH
1	Does not respond until encouraged	Naming	Isolated words or phrases	Unable to point to correct object in picture or to define word	Reproduction of ideas	VOICE clear pleasant nasal high low loud husky
2	Responds one or more spontaneous remarks--does not continue	Description	Simple sentence one subject one verb	Points to correct object but cannot define word verbally	Sequence of ideas	ARTICULATION precise blurred infantile breathy lispings omits sounds
3	Responds and continues when requested	Interpretation It's a hot day Doy feels sorry for baby	Simple sentence compound subject, predicate or object	Defines word by stating use of object	Prediction of outcome	RHYTHM smooth jerky hesitant drawled rapid fluent blocked stammering
4	Responds freely, continues when requested, is highly productive	Narrative description The boy threw the ball The baby has eaten the candy	Compound sentence containing a conjunction or complex with one dependent clause	Defines word by describing object		
5	Same as 3 and 4 but includes teacher in a conversational manner	Evaluative interpretation Dogs don't know better, but boys do	Sentences containing more than one dependent clause	Defines word by giving generic term or class to which object belongs		

Adapted from--Monroe, Marion, Growing Into Reading, Scott Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1951.

- c. Vocabulary repetition is secured. A vocabulary count of the material used is important.
- d. Experience and language records of school activities are used.
- e. A variety of books is selected. Basal readers make an important contribution and are used with the other texts and trade books.

II. Providing an appropriate classroom environment.

A rich context of experience is essential to stimulating reading activities. Books are attractively displayed in a library corner. The bulletin board contains aids to classroom activities. Pictures have appropriate captions. Experience charts record important aspects of planning and learning through group experiences. Space is provided for informal reading groups to meet with the teacher and to meet independently.

III. Guiding the children's experiences.

The teacher's function is a positive one of providing an environment in which children may have pleasant and successful experiences in learning to read. She is a guide who plans activities and experiences that enable children to assume responsibility:

- a. Planning for use of a variety of materials.

Undoubtedly children will be working with a heavier vocabulary load, therefore care must be taken to be sure that the materials supplement each other. An experience record may be developed as a part of

an activity related to a health program. Stories about the same health aspect may be read from the health readers. Health posters may supplement the content. The same vocabulary is used in the word lists being developed.

One group of children was planning the first cafeteria experience. Among the records they made were:

How To Get A Hot Lunch

1. Walk in line.
2. Walk quietly.
3. Get one tray.
4. Get one napkin.
5. Get one spoon and one fork.
6. Carry the tray with two hands.
7. Go to your desk quietly.

Lunch At School

We ate lunch at school today.
Some children bought hot lunches.
Some children brought lunch boxes.
One child went home.
All the food tasted good.
We cleaned the desks after lunch.
We will eat at school every day.

These charts were followed by the class reading from books containing stories having similar content. Stories selected from the library display to be read by the teacher were:

"Lunch", pp. 44-49, *Being Six*, Basic Health and Safety Program, Scott Foresman, 1957.

"Milk Every Day", pp. 62-66, *Health and Happy Days*, Health For Better Living, Ginn, 1954.

"Lunch", p. 36, *All Day and Every Day*, ABC Health Series, American, 1954.

"Time To Eat", pp. 48-50, *From Head To Toe*, Winston Health Series, Winston, 1954.

Then the children read a story:

"Lunch At School", pp. 44-49, *My First Health Book*, Road to Health Series, Laidlaw, 1954.

- b. Guiding the reading of the story.

When the material to be read is related to the on-going activities in the classroom, the development of basic concepts grows out of direct experiences. The purpose for reading is agreed upon as the group talks about the pictures and title, and the relation of the material to the class experiences. At the very beginning the teacher is the one who reads the story while the children listen and follow the printed material. Emphasis is placed on the content and organization of the story for intelligent reading is meaningful reading. Children are aided in identifying the message conveyed by the story material but rely on the teacher for accurate identification of words. Organization of ideas and interpretation of meaning are stressed. Children are guided toward activities that help them gain meaning from what is read. These activities include listening for the main idea, finding ideas which tell when, why, how; making pictures

which tell the sequence of the story; locating similar ideas in different material; predicting outcomes; selecting the part that answers a specific question; making a simple picture dictionary; and others.

- c. Developing the child's responsibility for reading.

As the same vocabulary is used in many situations children begin to identify words and phrases. The teacher no longer reads to them. The goal is not independent recognition of every word but emphasis on a selected vocabulary that is reused in many activities. Children are taught to work out new words through context clues and word recognition skills. The teacher helps the children to become independent as she provides activities to help develop skills needed in reading:

1. Using context clues.

Associating picture clues with words when making a picture dictionary; when associating illustrations with the text being read; when finding a picture of a lunch and matching the sentence that tells about a lunch.

Locating and reading a sentence on a chart and finding a word used in the picture dictionary.

Recognizing a word that completes a sentence.

Recognizing punctuation marks to identify a sentence.

2. Recognizing a basic sight vocabulary.

Making a picture dictionary.

One first grade group was working on getting acquainted with the school. When they had developed a number of experience records and read stories from books they started a picture dictionary of known words, for example:

Words We Are Using

cat	hats
turtle	coats
patrol	jack-o-lantern
book	up
slide	down
big	school
little	bus
play	work
lunch	fire

Labeling work areas and desks

Another class group made labels for supplies as Paper, Paint, Paint Brushes, etc. The children played games to help recognize the words and matched words with the labels on the proper cabinet or shelf.

Name tags for desks were made and recognition games were played.

3. Interpreting meaning
Reading the story as a whole to get main idea.
Finding the sentence that describes a character.

Finding the sentence that is illustrated in the picture.

Arranging sentence strips in the story sequence.

Dramatizing a selection to interpret its meaning.
Illustrating a story that has been read.

4. Using phonetic analysis
Developing auditory discrimination

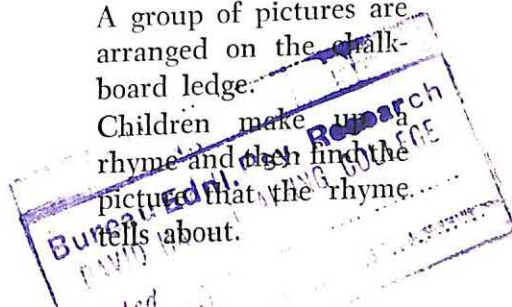
Pairs of words in which some of the pairs start with the same sound and some with different sounds, as *milk*, *mother*, etc. are pronounced. Children signal when words start with the same sound. Children supply other words starting with the same sound.

Groups of pictures or miniatures are arranged on a table.

Children select objects or pictures that begin with the same sound as —candy, cookie, cake.

A group of pictures are arranged on the chalk-board ledge.

Children make up a rhyme and then find the pictures that the rhyme tells about.



Developing visual discrimination

Children are guided to find:

words that begin alike

words that end alike

compare new with known words

Specific needs of individuals are kept in mind and help given whenever and wherever needed. Children are soon held responsible for reading the material with the teacher's guidance. Independent reading is encouraged.

- d. Providing opportunity for independent activity.

Provision is made for independent activities through which children have opportunity to use the vocabulary and content of the material read. Opportunity for independent reading also is planned. Such activities may include—

1. Dramatization of stories
 - (a) Children acting—planning action and portraying characters; reading the story.
 - (b) Making puppets
Making stick puppets; using available puppets

- (c) Making character dolls

Making characters and simple props to use in retelling the story.

- (d) Using the flannel board to retell a story.

2. Graphic representation of material

- (a) Drawing, painting, chalking pictures of events in the story, or showing story in serial form.

- (b) Making dioramas or model.

3. Oral presentation

- (a) Retelling a story.

- (b) Reading the story orally to share with others.

Summary

The fast learner is stimulated to follow his bent and is not restricted to a formally organized series of activities. Provisions for the characteristic needs of the able learner is the responsibility of the teacher. His individual needs, his range of interests, and the ability to handle more complex learning situations must be recognized.

Reading experiences with actual books is an important aspect of a differentiated program.

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Individualized Reading*

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IT IS WELL to begin a discussion on reading by defining what is meant by the term reading. Reading is not a simple activity that can be defined in a few words. Perhaps one of the best definitions and one on which Individualized Reading may well be based has been offered by Dr. Edgar Dale, Ohio State University, in his *News Letter* of October 1954. "Reading, we must remember, is a process of getting meaning from the printed page by putting meaning into the printed page. Reading taste and ability are always tethered to past experience. But reading itself is one way of increasing this capital fund of past experience. Reading, therefore, must be seen as more than *saying* the word, more than *seeing* the sentence and paragraphs. Good reading is the way a person brings his whole life to bear on the new ideas which he finds on the printed page. It is reading the lines, reading between the lines, and reading beyond the lines."

Reading has been for many years and still is perhaps the topic most frequently discussed by teachers, supervisors, and specialists. The development of effective reading programs has probably been studied more often by educational research workers than any other area. In spite of this emphasis, we do not yet

seem to have all the answers because we go on searching for *the* "magic formula" that will solve all reading problems for all children.

As a result of our own various research studies through the years, we had realized for some time that, while the philosophy concerning reading was in consonance with the newer thoughts on child development and learning, the practices in large measure were not. Too close adherence to grade level standards and the use of graded textbooks, which assume that all children move at the same pace, prevented our practices from being as forward-looking as our ideas.

We began to question the slavish adherence to the *basic reader systems*. (The "sober" books as Josette Frank¹ calls them.) There was strong belief that the materials would do the teaching rather than the teacher. There was too much confusion between methods and materials; between methods and class organization. There was also too much thinking in terms of mechanics rather than in terms of objectives and values.

We began, therefore, to "sharpen" our thoughts in view of our findings and to take a new look at the whole program—the place of reading in the total curriculum, the materials and methods used, and the results in terms of larger

*Based on a speech delivered at the Second Annual Conference of the International Reading Association, May 11, 1957, Hotel New Yorker, New York City. This speech will be printed in *Reading in Action*, Proceedings of the 1957 Conference of the International Reading Association—New York: Scholastic Magazine, 33 West 42 Street, 1957, \$2.00.

1. Frank Josette. "What Are Children Reading in This TV Age?" *Child Study*, 34:3-7, Spring 1957.

values rather than in terms of the skills alone. In short, were the practices and approaches meeting specifically the needs and interests of the children? What type of program would really "touch" the children and help them become active participants in the learning situation? What type of program would put less emphasis on the "Reader" (text-book) and more on the reader (the child)? What type of program would make them want to read and love to read?

Our belief was and still is that reading is a thinking process and not a skills gadget-collecting procedure. To quote various authorities, this same idea has been referred to as: "unrelated bits of bric—a—brac"; all children progress together bit by bit"; "we put our children on a conveyor belt of mechanics"; "we think of the teacher as a technician with a multitude of tricks."

We believe that reading is neither a "subject" nor an area just to be studied at school. It is a "way of living" and can be a force for integrating the child's personality. We believe also that experiences and relationships are closely related to reading activities and that reading is a vital part of the child's full life. Furthermore, we believe that the skills are necessary in any program, but that they must be introduced functionally. The child should know what skills he needs and *why* he needs them. The specific skills to be taught and when to teach them depends upon the strength of purposes and urgency of needs. In other words, we believe in fitting the skills to the child and not the child to the skills.

The last few years have seen the beginning of experimentation with a dynamic approach to reading evolving from an evaluation of present procedures.

This approach has been referred to as "Individualized Reading." The term "approach" is here considered not as a *single method or technique* but as a *way of thinking about reading*—an attitude toward reading. Individualized Reading is based on thinking which involves new concepts, not only with respect to class organization, techniques, and materials, but also to the child's development needs as well.

In our research projects over the years, we found that it was not unusual for many classes to have a wide range of abilities from non-readers to those who were about two years advanced. With such a situation, it was impossible to succeed with class or even group instruction. The solution seemed to lie in a truly individualized approach to reading—one that would reach the varying needs, interests, and drives of the children in the class. For several years various adaptations of this approach were tried in certain of the schools. As we worked more and more with the individualized approach, we began to crystallize our thinking and organize and record our thoughts. Thus a tentative mimeographed brochure, *Thinking About Individualized Reading*, emerged.

During the years when the individualized approach to reading was occupying our thoughts, we found from the professional literature that others had also been working and thinking along the same lines for some time—Marian Jenkins and Grace Garrettson in California, Jeanette Veatch in Maryland, and a number of others—too numerous to list here. Willard C. Olson's studies concerned with the nature of growth, behavior, and achievement led to the concepts of *seeking*, *self-selection*, and

pacing. Dr. Olson² points out that the healthy child is continually exploring his environment and seeking experiences which fit in with his growth and needs. These seeking tendencies and self-selection of stimulating material in the environment are basic for learning. Pacing is the teacher's responsibility for providing each child with the materials and experiences at a tempo that insures success at his stage of maturity. Dr. Olson ties up these concepts admirably with reading. These studies gave reassurance to our own theories of Individualized Reading. Jeanette Veatch reinforces this by her definition of Individualized Reading. "An individualized reading program provides each child with an environment which allows him to seek that which stimulates him, choose that which helps him develop most, and work at his own rate regardless of what else is going on. Seeking, self-selection, and pacing (which Willard C. Olson had so well pointed out) are the concepts that give individualized reading its unusual quality."³

Before explaining the operation of this approach, it seems necessary to present some underlying fundamental premises, as follows:

Reading is a matter individual to each child.

A child should have the opportunity to proceed at his own pace.

The reading experiences should eliminate comparisons with others, thus minimize feelings of inadequacy and doing away with "stigma."

The level of the reader or reading material should be subordinate to the act and enjoyment of reading itself.

Allowing a child some freedom of

choice in selection of his reading materials will develop real purpose for reading.

Instruction in reading and reading itself are constantly interwoven.

If we really believe in individual differences in children, we must deal with them individually. Individualized Reading actually provides the child with the procedures he specifically needs. These may be quite different from those needed by other children in the same class.

Various names have been suggested for this approach to reading, but none seems entirely adequate. The term "Individualized Reading" is not altogether satisfactory. Some persons interpret it to mean that there is never opportunity for group or class teaching and sharing. This is completely erroneous. "Personalized Reading" and "Self-selection Reading" are also not entirely descriptive terms because they give the impression that assigned reading activities may not be included. This is also erroneous. For want of a truly descriptive term, to simplify the discussion, and because most reading authorities use this term, the title "Individualized Reading" will be used throughout this paper. Actually it is an error to place any specific name to the reading program. Individualized Reading is really the developmental approach to reading based closely on the specific capacities and needs of children and how they learn.

You have all heard of extensive, library, recreational, or independent reading. These may or may not include self-selection, but they definitely do not involve actual reading instruction as does Individualized Reading. It is gen-

2. Willard C. Olson, "Seeking, Self-selection, and Pacing in the Use of Books by Children," *The Packet*, (Spring 1952), 3-10. Boston 16, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Avenue.

3. Jeanette Veatch, "Individualized Reading—For Success in the Classroom," *The Educational Trend*, 1954. Washington 6, D. C.: Arthur C. Croft Publications, Dupont Circle Building.

erally assumed that the above four types of reading are adjuncts to the basic program going on, and that they are distinct and discrete from each other. Individualized Reading is not subordinate to or an adjunct of the basic reading program—it is *the basic program*. It is a way of organizing the class, the materials, and the individual children in order to meet the real objectives and values concerned with their learning.

The major features of Individualized Reading are that children generally make their own selections and read at their own rate; the teacher works with individuals chiefly but also with groups or with the whole class on difficulties observed during individual sessions. Grouping, then, has real purpose. It does not set them apart or designate them in negative ways. It brings children together for positive reasons.

Now we shall proceed to the actual operation of this approach. How did it start in the schools? What are the advantages? What are the problems? Our experience seems to be similar to the experiences reported elsewhere by others who have undertaken this approach.

Through our publications, informal reports, and personal contacts, some of the school personnel became aware of our point of view, and after further reading and inquiry decided to experiment in their own schools. The reading consultants of the Division of Elementary Schools who had had the opportunity to work with us on various projects helped in translating some of our ideas to the teachers and principals. They also assisted in setting up the program in some of the schools.

Two members of our Bureau staff are making a survey in the schools where Individualized Reading has been started. They are observing classes and interviewing principals, teachers, and chil-

dren. I also have visited some of the schools. It is most stimulating to find such good thinking on the part of the school personnel and such excellent *implementation* of their thinking.

The principals preferred to go slowly at first, involving only those teachers who volunteered and were willing to experiment. The grades were mainly fourth and higher, although a number of primary classes were included.

Some of the preliminary steps taken were as follows:

- Getting as many suitable books into the classroom as possible; keeping books flowing in and out of classroom.
- Telling the children something about the changes in approach.

- Finding out the children's interests and personal feelings toward books and reading.

- Determining the children's comfortable levels; their strengths and weaknesses; the specific skills needed.

- Establishing necessary routines; developing self-management with respect to these routines.

- Helping the child and the right book come together.

After visiting about 70 classes and making a survey of current practices, it was found that, although no two teachers worked exactly in the same way even in the same school, there emerged a general picture of their procedures:

- Teachers generally gave some directions to the class as a whole.

- A time was given when all children read independently from self-selected material.

- Teachers held sessions or "conferences" with individual children or with a small group.

- Teachers kept records of children's abilities, needs, and interests.

- The children kept simple records and reports of their readings.

- There was class or group discussion or sharing of books read.

The teachers devised various ways of working with the children. They might have the "conference" off in a corner of the room or they might walk down the aisles asking the children to read for them and giving aid when needed or asked for. They varied their procedures. They could not work with every child every day, nor was there sharing every day. The length of the sessions depended on the children, the size of the class, the material available, and the purposes of the children and the teacher. There was no precise pattern or set of rules which the teacher followed.

In the individualized reading approach, the teacher's role is crucial. She must plan carefully, budget her time, keep adequate records, evaluate her procedures, be flexible, resourceful, and creative. While this seems to be a large order, it was interesting to note that the teachers who were visited in the survey were fulfilling these responsibilities very well within the flexible atmosphere of Individualized Reading. Actually these responsibilities are not peculiar to Individualized Reading alone. The degree to which the teacher carries out these qualitative requirements in a positive direction will make any program more worthwhile.

The teachers observed were more aware and concerned about the skills than they had ever been in the basic reader program. They understood how to combine the skills instruction with the free-selection material. It should be called to the attention of those who contemplate starting Individualized Reading that the specific methods concerning word attack, word recognition, and comprehension have not been changed. The changes are not in the specific methods but rather in the kinds of ma-

terial, in class organization, and in reading experience. The teachers interviewed seemed to sense a better relationship between the amount of time given to skills development and the actual act of reading. This is the way one teacher expressed herself: "The mechanics are secondary. The teacher's understanding of how the mechanics are to be fitted in is important. It's the *meshing* of the mechanics and the actual reading that is inherent in Individualized Reading. At times the teacher actually cannot focus on the mechanics *per se*, if the reading is interfered with. However, with good planning she provides time for the development of mechanics."

In the discussion or "sharing" sessions, we observed more lively participation, interest, and attention on the part of the children than was ever possible in any other type of reading program. Wider vocabulary usage, deeper comprehension, and more critical thinking were evident. The activities described above were not limited to just certain "reading periods." Free-selection operated at other times, and skills were developed similarly in reading situations concerned with other curriculum areas.

The evaluation of this approach cannot be left to the use of standardized tests alone. Other observations are necessary in order to measure the *quality* and *depth* of the children's reading. What effect, for example, has reading on the child's thinking? What effect will it have on his life both now and later?

As in any program, some problems will arise. The teachers and principals expressed concern about:

Materials—there are not enough books as yet to fit the needs of the classes; administration and organization of the books are serious factors.

Children's ability in selection—some children may need special guidance which the teacher does not foresee.

Teacher attitude—fear of something new.

Teacher effectiveness—would all teachers be able to handle this approach?

Supervision—flexibility makes procedures more difficult to assess. If the supervisor understands and has the same objectives, evaluation will not be too difficult. He may, however, have to employ evaluative measures somewhat different in nature from the existing ones.

Parents' reactions—skepticism about changing procedures.

Observations have shown that the teachers and supervisors are meeting the challenge of these problems. The materials will always present difficulties. The public libraries are finding that even they do not have an adequate supply because of this new interest in reading.

The values of the individualized approach are too numerous to include in this paper. The most important will be summarized as follows:

Values for the Child

Really provides for individual differences; satisfies children's needs of seeking, self-selection, and pacing.

Better integration with other language arts—more creative thinking and critical reading; wide increase in vocabulary; motivation for listening, writing, and spelling; strong desire to communicate ideas.

Decided carry-over to homes; more self-initiated reading; extensive use of public library.

Social interaction—good relationships within the class; acceptance of one another's contributions; "caste system" is broken down.

The child has a better sense of his own worth—self-understanding; he is a participating member of the

group—he relies on his own self-management; he feels that he is a real part of the program and is learning from his own efforts and not always because of what the teacher wants him to learn.

Child actually reads; learns to cherish and handle books; respects authors and their ideas.

Observations and interviews with the children have indicated that they are happier, reading more, and learning more. Their testimonials are heartwarming. One boy remarked: "No matter what happens, I'm going to stick with it." Another boy wrote, "This is a healthier program." Upon being questioned to explain, he said, "Well, now I read all the books I like in my class. So now I don't have to read them after school, and I have time to play outside and that is healthier."

Values and Rewarding Outcomes for the Teacher

This approach leads to:

A one-to-one relationship with the child—it leads more closely to the child's needs—the teacher is a real helper.

The conclusion that interest, independence, and self-status of the children lessen the probability of behavior problems.

Increased teacher growth—there is greater responsibility on the part of the teacher in identifying and adjusting skills; in developing more long-term goals; in more thinking in terms of objectives and values.

Solving the problem of the wide range—it is more easily handled.

Integration of the curriculum—a natural outgrowth of this approach.

Increased status of teacher by participation in pioneer work—a real "grass roots" movement—she has opportunities to show her creativeness, resourcefulness, flexibility.

More support and active participation of supervisor.

Our observations and interviews have shown us that the teachers participating in the individualized approach are thoroughly satisfied and in most cases enthusiastic. I should like to close this paper with two quotations.

The first came from a student of Brooklyn College who had actively participated in developing Individualized Reading in one of the schools. She wrote, "I feel that the program has definitely benefited the children involved; they read better and with more understanding. Although some problems do arise, they can be solved with a little

thought and insight. Teaching principles are based on motivating the child. They are motivated best by interest, and this program incorporates that to the fullest extent."

The other quotation is from an interview with one of the principals. He said: "This is the best thing that has come along in the educational field for a long time. It seems so simple that one wonders why it wasn't hit upon before. This is truly getting at the individual. This is individualizing in fact and not in name only."

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Parents *and* Teachers Want to Know About Reading

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"WHY ARE THERE so many more reading difficulties in this generation?" This question is uppermost in the minds of many parents today. In fact, some parents have become alarmed over the situation.

Teachers Face The Question

This same question was raised by many teachers during the 1930's. Before that time very little research on reading had been put to use in the classrooms. Certainly, very few teachers were informed about child development, retardation in reading, phonics and other word perception skills, reading readiness, thinking, reading difficulty of materials, and other ideas which are common knowledge today. In fact, not much was known about individual differences in learning to read. (2, 4)

As the facts about learning to read, teaching methods, and instructional materials became generally known, teachers gradually revised their notions about teaching children to read. As late as the 1930's it was common practice to try to teach all first graders to read—whether they were admitted at four, five, or six years of age. Children who reached some arbitrary standard of reading achievement were promoted to second grade and the others were failed. At each grade level, every child was given the same textbooks regardless of his capacity to learn or his achievement.

The result of this practice was compounded frustration for many children. Some children who could have made faster progress were discouraged because they had to use the same books as all other pupils in the class. Many children were held in the same grade for one, two, or more years—creating a serious over-age problem. In fact, twelve- and fourteen-year-old children could be found in first grade classes—humiliated and irritated, of course! As soon as the law allowed, they did a sane thing; namely, dropped out of school. This foolish practice of solving pedagogical problems by eliminating the pupil could not survive. (8)

Retardation: Facts

Studies of children during the 1930's revealed many facts which at that time were startling. First, about 25% of the children were reading below their mental capacities. These children became known as retarded readers and non-readers. (3)

Second, more of the children in the upper half of the class were retarded in reading than in the lower half of the class. That is, they were reading at levels far below their general mental abilities. This fact clearly indicated the need for a wide range of reading materials in a classroom to challenge the superior readers as well as the poor readers. (1)

Third, about 80% of the retarded readers were found to have normal or superior intelligence. This fact was a shock to teachers who had entertained the false belief that a poor reader had to be dumb! Now there was a new ray of hope for many non-readers and retarded readers.

Fourth, about 80% of the retarded readers were found to be boys.

These facts led to intensive study of the cause of reading difficulties. It soon was clear that there was not one cause, but many causes:

1. Premature teaching, that is, attempting to teach a child to read before he was qualified, or ready, to do so.
2. Frustrating the pupil with books that were not suitable to his reading level, rather than challenging him with materials at his reading ability level.
3. Faulty visual skills which caused or contributed to the child's difficulties in reading.
4. Impaired hearing which contributed to his inability to hear all the sounds of the words and to his inattention in class.
5. Anxieties and other emotional disabilities which caused or contributed to deficiencies in attention and/or concentration and, therefore, in reading.
6. Brain injuries—recognized or undetected—which caused an inability to learn to read by usual methods.
7. Mental or emotional immaturity.

Prevention and Correction

These and other factors in reading difficulties soon became common knowledge among teachers, psychologists, and doctors. Long before the parents became fully aware of the retarded reader prob-

lem, several steps were taken to help him:

First, teachers began to group children within the classroom so that each child had an equal opportunity to learn at his own level of achievement. This practice calls for parent-teacher cooperation, based on an understanding of the wide range of individual differences in a classroom and of what to do about them. When this mutual understanding is lacking, parents often misinterpret what is being done in the best interests of their children.

Reading: Now and Then

Second, special consultants, supervisors, and corrective reading teachers have been added to school staffs. In the long run, school officials probably will conclude that there is a need for a reading clinic for the non-reader and severely retarded reader and for demonstration teachers who can help classroom teachers with problems of grouping children within the classroom.

Third, reading clinics to deal with extreme reading disabilities have been set up as separate units or as one unit of a psycho-educational clinic.

Why are there more reading difficulties now than in grandfather's day? When grandfather was of school age anyone who could not read or who had difficulty in learning to read was believed to be just plain stupid. This opinion gave the teachers an excuse; of course, they could not teach a child the complex process of reading if he were mentally below par. In short, most of the facts recited above were not even discovered in grandfather's day. (7)

The facts seem to indicate that Johnny reads as well as his father, grandfather, or great grandfather. But Johnny's father and grandparents didn't read very well, either! So there is considerable room for improvement.

The fact, then, is that there probably are no more reading difficulties in this generation of children than in previous generations. Instead, teachers and psychologists today know more about individual differences. Equally important, they are doing something about them. And this doing brings in the parents.

Each year new facts are being discovered about why Johnny can't read and why Jimmy can, about the reading difficulty (readability) of books, and so on. After each new fact has been discovered and tested, then the problem is how to put it to use.

Doing something about new facts is exactly what has been going on in some schools. Different plans have been and are being tried out in good schools. It is the making of these changes to square with the facts that has caused parents to ask questions. In schools where the parents have been in on the facts and the proposed changes, things have gone smoothly. These parents see that Jimmy is getting a better deal than his father or grandfather.

Psychologists have learned that people are suspicious of scientists—until they get some glimmer of understanding of what scientists are doing. Since parents are people, they want to know why Johnny is in this group and Mary is in another group in the classroom. And it is important that parents do understand what is going on, because Johnny and Mary need the peace of mind that comes with intelligent guidance from their parents and teachers.

Parents Face the Question

For some years, parents have become increasingly aware of the reading needs of their children. Special attention has been given to their children at all school levels. They have read newspaper and

magazine articles and books concerning the teaching of reading written by responsible journalists and teachers. They have also read books and articles by uninformed and irresponsible journalists! They have been given antidotes and cure-alls that seem simple but are based on few, if any, facts. And they have been given sensible over-all views based on scientific evidence. It is little wonder that many parents are confused.

In many communities, through citizen's committees, parents are taking positive, constructive steps to study the situation. They are studying methods, materials, and, best of all, they are studying children. From the reports made to date, it appears that these committees have been effective: more citizens see the reading problem in complex relationship to the problems of education in general. Parents as partners of teachers are beginning to see that times have changed, progress has been made. Then, too, teachers are learning to cement closer relationships with parents. Perhaps the long recognized gap between research and classroom practice will be lessened.

Patience and persistence will be required to get at one of the major issues: adequate support for teachers' colleges and graduate schools of education. At present the over-worked and poorly paid teachers of teachers must be considered. Perhaps the time is coming when citizens will use the ballot box to support institutions for teacher education as well as they now support medical, dental, engineering, and other professional schools.

Differences Are Important

Children learn to crawl, stand, walk, and talk at different ages. By the same token, they also learn to read at differ-

ent ages. A few children, for example, learn to read at age three or four but most children do not catch on to reading until they have passed their sixth birthday. In short, they may be admitted to grade one when they have attained the calendar age of six but this does not mean that any teacher in the world can teach all of them to read at that age!

The child who learns to talk at two years certainly has a far better chance of learning to read at age six than the child who doesn't learn to talk until age three or four. This statement is obvious to parents and teachers. There are big differences among children in readiness for reading and in the rates at which they progress.

When the first-grade teacher meets her class on the first day, she finds they present a variety of needs. One or two may read, know the names of the letters, can write legibly, and use all speech sounds accurately. A few children are still learning the sounds of speech, the difference between *tomorrow* and *yesterday*, the days of week, and color names. The rest of the class falls between these two extremes. Since the modern teacher knows it would be absurd to put all of them in the same book, she groups them according to their needs.

As the children go through the school year, they become even less alike. Differences in reading and other abilities are increased. Training and schooling increase individual differences rather than decrease them. By the end of the first year, one or two or three pupils may still need more preparation for beginning reading. And a few may be able to read third readers with as much satisfaction as the average third-grade child.

Should the teacher recommend that

all children who cannot read a first-reader—at least 30% or 40% of the class—be retained in first grade? Should she recommend that the best readers be sent to the third grade? The answer, of course, is a quite clear-cut No: in the first place, children excel in different activities; some have more aptitudes in reading while others have more aptitude in numbers or science or art or music. In general, the gifted excel in many things and the mentally retarded are poor in many things.

This does not mean, however, that the same level of achievement will be found for a child in each subject. No matter how they are grouped for classes, individual differences in both capacities and abilities will be there, and the differences will be more apparent as time goes on. Secondly, children tend to make better emotional and social adjustments when they are kept with children of their own age. For these and other reasons, nearly all of the children are sent to a second-grade teacher.

Each year the range of differences is lengthened. By the time the average class is in the third grade, for example, there are one or two children in the beginning reading stage and there are one or two who can compete on even terms with the average seventh-grader. When this class is in the fifth-grade, the range is likely to be from the pre-primer or primer level of reading ability to as high as the twelfth-grade level. In the junior and senior high schools, this range in reading abilities is increased, not decreased. These are the facts with which teachers must deal. These are the facts which parents must understand in order to guide the development of their children to effective adult citizenship—with peace of mind.

Aids to Learning

Over the years, reading programs have been built around one or more of a half-dozen widely used series of basic readers. These readers are graded in reading difficulty (readability!), all beginning with one to three paper bound pre-primers for beginners and a cloth-bound primer and first reader. Until fairly recently one book was offered for each of grades two and three, inclusive. Now the practice is to offer two books graded in difficulty for these grades. Gradually, these reading series are being extended for use through the junior and senior high school levels. It is also common practice to provide a study book or workbook for the pre-primer program and one for each book above that level.

The selections in the basic readers provide the materials of reading and the study books provide for the systematic development of (1) interests (2) phonic and related word learning skills and (3) thinking and related aspects of comprehension. The basic readers and study books make up a team of teaching materials for a reading-study program.

In addition to the basic readers and study books for the pupils, a teacher's guide book is provided for each book in the series. These guide books describe how to group children, how to direct reading activities in the basic reader, and how to use the study books for skill development. Equally important, they offer many suggestions for independent (individual) and group reading of both fiction and factual material. In this way the basic reading program is used as a springboard into the world of reading for fun and for information.

When a child has reached third-reader level, he usually begins to use a simple dictionary. He also begins to expand his reading interest to real life

stories. Soon he takes a lively interest in informative selections. By the time he has attained fourth-reader level ability, he has been initiated in the independent use of authoritative encyclopedias, atlases, and other reference books.

Dictionaries help the child with the pronunciation and some of the important uses of a word. But his endeavors to get him understanding takes him beyond dictionary definitions. He needs to know where a place is, who made a discovery, who did something big and dramatic, how things are made and operated, and a host of related ideas. He needs something into which he can put his intellectual teeth. Many of these needs are met in the authoritative, readable, and extensive entries of an encyclopedia. Skillful use of an encyclopedia improves basic skills, enriches the school program, and provides needed information.

A basic reading program is designed to develop a competence and a readiness for reading in the larger sense. A well-taught lesson in a basic reader leads into books of fiction and of fact to satisfy the needs of the growing child. Supplementary readers and other textbooks, fiction, reference books, atlases, maps, globes, models—all these are aids to learning. All are needed for the satisfying and well rounded living of child and adult.

Three Essentials for Reading

Sally, a kindergarten child, comes to the teacher with a wild flower she has picked on the way to school. She wants to know what it is called. Or, Jimmy brings in a tattered cardboard box containing a little green frog and wants to know more about it. Maybe the teacher does or doesn't know all the answers to these questions. But she does know that these are good healthy interests which

lead to ideas, concepts, and attitudes. So she turns to an authoritative encyclopedia—yes, even for kindergarten children. Here she finds for Sally not only faithful reproductions (in color!) of flowers but also authentic information about rules for picking wild flowers and where and how they grow. In the same volume, the teacher finds answers to Jimmy's questions about frogs.

Before this little informal session is over, several things have happened. All the children who took part in this discussion were more interested in flowers, frogs, and tadpoles because they knew more about them. One question led to another and interest was heightened. Moreover, they had discovered how wonderful and interesting a good book can be. Many of them asked to look at the pictures in the other volumes! Thus other interests were fostered and learning was improved.

Interest. Parents often ask what they can do to get their children ready for school. Should they teach them the A B C's? How to read? The answer, of course, is to teach them how to get along with other children, how much fun it is to hear good stories read or told, how interesting everything is. In other words, parents can and should encourage their children to develop interests which take them into reading. Interest is a starting point. (3)

At age two or three, Jimmy asked many "what" questions: what is this Mama? By age four he is asking "why," "how," and "when" questions. By age five, he adds, "where" questions. These questions need to be answered—sincerely and authoritatively. One good source is an authoritative home and school encyclopedia, recommended by competent authorities.

Why make such a big point of chil-

dren's questions? Simply because they need answers in order to mature in their interests—to grow up in their questions and in their abilities to think with facts.

One of the first essentials in being ready for beginning reading is *interest* which takes the child to reading. As these interests are nurtured by parents and teachers, the child's comprehension is improved. He gets the feel for language, spoken and written. And he learns to think. (After all, reading is one form of thinking.)

By the time the child can read a fourth reader, he not only has learned where he can get answers to his questions, but also he has made a start on the road to independence in using references himself. He is interested.

From kindergarten age and on, children are interested in facts and show that they can reason. At age six, they enjoy hearing animal tales and realistic stories about children. They show a marked increase in the ability to tell the difference between fact and fancy.

By age seven, they begin to read on their own, but are usually eager to take time out to hear a good story or some verse. They like to classify things; for example, to make scrap books about something. They begin to expect cause-effect explanations of their "why" questions, to move from adult-centered to child-centered groups.

At age seven, children enjoy fairy tales and this stage reaches its peak at eight. At eight they begin to show interest in real life stories. By age nine there is an interest shift from the fanciful to the factual. If they have grown up in homes and schools where adults have consulted reference books, they will turn quite naturally to an encyclopedia. They crave information about dinosaurs, Indians, powered flight,

horses, and a variety of other interests. And they like to get this information on their own, using a table of contents, index, and other ways to locate it.

By age ten, boys are looking up how-to-do subjects on inventions, mechanics, model airplanes, radio, etc; girls, on cooking, sewing, etc. Boys go in a big way for stories about legendary heroes; girls, for biographies of women.

These interests expand, calling for ever wider sources of information. By age twelve the reading interest is at its peak. All the years of nurturing interests of children now pay big dividends.

Between the ages of twelve and sixteen, interests become intensified, specialized, and stabilized. Up to about the age of nine, children depend a lot upon adults for attitudes and ideas. Their experiences with books vary from rich to poor, depending upon the attitudes and guidance given first by parents and later by parents and teachers. After age nine, children begin to break these bonds of dependency because they want to do things on their own. How well they do after age nine depends upon how well parents and teachers have done their job before that time.

The first golden age, then, for developing permanent and worthwhile interests in reading is that period before nine years. If the parents read widely and enjoy discussing what they read, it is easy for children to take a similar interest. Of course, the materials suitable for children must be available in the home as well as in the school and the public library.

The second golden age is that period from nine years and on. Children begin to take longer and longer flights back into time. These flights take them farther away from home—to other communities, states, countries and even into

outer space. As interests mature, the adolescent delves deeper into science, history, economics, etc. Interest in reading is established as a permanent and worthwhile activity.

Phonics and Related Word Learning Skills. "What about phonics?" This is a question of considerable concern to many parents. And to teachers, too! (2, 3)

Interest is the starting point for learning anything, but especially for learning to read. It is only one of the first essentials, however. A beginner must learn to tell one word from another—if he ever learns to read. The ability to associate the sounds of words with letters and groups of letters, as in syllables, is one good way to tell one little group of wiggley lines from another. So phonics and all the other skills that help to identify words quickly and accurately make up another first essential in reading.

Good readers don't guess at words. Even though *house* and *home*, for example, look a little bit alike, they mean two different things to people who are raised in homes where there is love and faith and compassion. And so a child who feels this difference can make better and faster use of his phonics skills. He is taught to use meaning clues with the phonic clues to the bare word form.

Phonic skills help the child—or adult—to pronounce words but they do not give him the idea the word represents. If all a child can do is pronounce words he sees in print, he, of course, cannot read. It is fairly easy to learn how to pronounce words in Latin, German, Spanish, or French, but learning to read one of these foreign languages calls for understanding the ideas.

Interest is something that is brought to reading. Parents and teachers don't

give separate lessons on interest alone. Interest is developed in tadpoles, jet engines, or Einstein's theory of relativity. Interest is on-going, a part of a satisfying activity.

Phonic skills are an inseparable part of the reading act. They help the beginner and the experienced reader to get at the idea when he associates the letters of whole words with the sounds of whole words that he understands when he listens to them or uses them in his speech. If the child is to use his phonic skills to get through to the idea, he must be able to use them automatically so that he can keep his one mind on the idea. For this reason, he learns his phonic skills in an actual reading situation rather than by studying a list of isolated, meaningless words before he reads.

Sincere parents often ask, "What about phonics?" with one eye-brow raised. Then they may inquire, "Why don't they teach phonics today?"

Cold, recorded facts show that the authors of teacher's manuals for widely used basic readers have never dropped phonics. Before any responsible author can drop phonics he must substitute a better way to analyze words for identification purposes. So far, that better way has not been discovered.

Thinking and Related Aspects of Comprehension. Today, more and more parents ask, "What can we do to help our children increase their reading speed and comprehension?" These often are the parents who are satisfied with the help their children are getting on phonics.

Comprehension is a topic which should be first-order concern to more parents and to more teachers. Researches have indicated that much more attention needs to be given to this aspect of reading.

The process of making a concept and of drawing a conclusion is called thinking. The product is called comprehension or understanding. (5)

Parents and teachers need to follow-up on children's interests. They also need to guide children in extending and deepening those interests. This is one of the first essentials in improving comprehension.

Of course, the child who has difficulty in identifying words because he lacks phonic skills has a slim chance of comprehending. He is so busy attending to the word form with his one mind that he must give up understanding the idea.

So interest, phonic skills, and thinking go hand in hand. They are three essentials for learning to read and for being a competent reader.

Learning how to think in a reading situation has its hazards, too. In the first place, thinking is done only in terms of the experience of the reader. If, for example, an eight year old has never seen a *sieve* and doesn't know its general purpose, it is difficult, if not impossible, to get the idea across with words alone. If his parents, teachers, or playmates have influenced his attitudes one way or another on a topic, his comprehension of what he reads on that topic is increased or decreased, depending on whether his attitudes are favorable or unfavorable toward the topic. (6)

Then, too, thinking can get bogged down in language. The word *range* or *foot* has different uses or meanings which the child must understand in order to think straight. These shifts in the uses of words are language hazards for inexperience readers.

Colorful expressions such as "Looking down your nose at someone,"

"Spring is just around the corner," and "Steam is king" are quite meaningless to children in the primary grades. Likewise, some children in the sixth grade may have difficulty in understanding, "Half a loaf is better than no bread." In order to understand these highly imaginative expressions children need to do a lot of growing up and to have help.

In the use of reference books, such as an authoritative encyclopedia, the child can learn a lot about systematic thinking. First, he can learn to state his problem clearly. The very young child simply wants to know about ducks, alligators, clouds, or where rubber comes from or other things which are easy to keep in mind. The older child and adolescent is concerned with more abstract concepts, ranging from woodlore to atoms. Unless the older pupils learn to state their problems clearly, their reading may take them on interesting but unrewarding by-paths, unrelated to their needs.

A second step in thinking calls for a knowledge of authentic sources of information. Both the reputation of authors and the ratings of encyclopedias, dictionaries, textbooks, and other reference materials are to be considered. Many children, for example, have a healthy respect for Roy Chapman Andrews and Wilfred Bronson in science.

Learning to judge whether a statement is a fact or an opinion is a third essential in learning to think. For example here are two statements in an authoritative home and school encyclopedia about flowers:

"the color, perfume, the dainty forms of flowers delight everyone" (12, F, p. 168)

"Many beautiful American wild flowers are becoming rare." (12, F, p. 168)

The first statement is quite clearly an expression of the author's attitude, an opinion; the second, a statement of fact because it can be verified.

Many arguments in both classrooms and living rooms arise because the participants have not learned to think clearly about facts and opinions. Most scientific reports and entries in encyclopedias present opinions as well as facts. But able writers give their readers many clues as to which are being presented. To get his thinking straight, the child needs learning experiences that will teach him when he is dealing with facts and when he is dealing with opinions.

A fourth step calls for the evaluation of the material selected for reading. When children are in the kindergarten and primary grades they learn easily to tell whether a statement is related to their topic or totally unrelated. As they become more mature in their attitudes and skills they learn to tell how closely related a statement is to their need. In short, they learn to judge the degree of relatedness of information to their purposes.

Organization of facts and opinions is a fifth essential in learning how to think. Outlining, for example, is a skill that requires long-time nurture. Kindergarten children take the first step when they learn to list housekeeping duties, what they want to find out on a field trip, the steps in a simple experiment with the germination of seeds, etc. Children in the intermediate grades, however, begin to deal with much more complex concepts. For this reason they are concerned not only with the co-ordinate main ideas but also with the co-ordinate sub-ideas that are related to each main idea. Outlining is one way for children to learn how to think clearly by organizing their ideas.

Summaries, charts, graphs, written reports, and other ways of organizing information are all ways of teaching the child how to think—how to comprehend. Heads-up teaching and authentic, well-written reference materials are necessary for the healthy emotional and intellectual growth of the child. Moreover, this is a job for both parents and teachers.

Setting up a problem, sifting out facts from opinions, testing the relevance of information to a need, organization of information—all these are steps in getting ready to use it. The big dividend comes when conclusions, or generalizations, are made.

By experimentation and hearing the teacher read from an authentic reference, the primary school child draws a conclusion about what kinds of metal a magnet will attract. By experimenting with models and consulting an appropriate reference, the older boy learns how an airplane flies. By collecting and organizing information about himself and possible vocations, the senior high school youth makes a choice of vocations. All of these are conclusions, mighty important at each age level. When training in how to think clearly and straight has been started in the home and has been nurtured in terms of the growing child's needs, he becomes a thinking adult. (9, 10)

When the child puts a cardboard box over a growing plant and finds, after a few days, that it has turned white, he learns to draw a conclusion between the effect (white color) and the cause (absence of light). When the older child learns the relationship between mosquitoes and disease he learns about cause and effect. Therefore, learning to think calls for learning to draw conclusions from cause-effect relationships.

To solve a mystery, a person collects relevant facts and draws a conclusion. By collecting related facts about the improvement of transportation and communication, the older student draws a conclusion about how fast the world is "shrinking." His problem is to collect enough relevant facts and to reorganize them so that he can draw a reasonable conclusion.

When the "Kentucky Fact Summary" on page 28, Volume K-L, of one encyclopedia (12) is consulted, verifiable information is found. But the population figures are for a given date. Therefore, the child needs to learn to date his facts before drawing a conclusion.

Drawing conclusions from analogies is fraught by many dangers for children. For this reason authors of authentic materials very carefully select their analogies. For example, here are some samples of readily understood analogies in one encyclopedia:

"The charges which make it [lightning] are built up by churning air inside a thundercloud." (12, K, p. 241)

"Liquids can dissolve solid materials or capture and hold gases in solution (See Solutions). Thus they serve as a kind of transportation system for dissolved materials." (12, K, p. 262)

In Summary

Teaching the child how to read is a mutual undertaking for parents and teachers. To do this job, they need to keep three aspects of the reading process in mind:

1. The development of *interests* which take the child to reading materials within his ability and which contribute to permanent and worthwhile reading habits.

2. The development of *phonic* and related word perception skills to a point where they are used automatically.
3. The development of the ability to *think* in reading situations.

Teachers assume all three of these responsibilities when they join the teaching profession. But by no means can parents rightfully shirk the first and third responsibilities. Reading parents tend to produce reading children.

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BOOK REVIEWS

SOVIET RUSSIA IN CHINA. By Chiang Kai-shek. N. Y. Farrar, Straus and Cudahy. 1957. \$5.00.

Red China presents a sore spot in the world today. The problem of our relations with the Communist regime in China and the attitude of the United Nations to China are indeed confusing issues. In this highly provocative book, Chiang Kai-shek has written an account of China's role in the modern world from the beginnings of the Nationalist Revolution led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen to the present. It is Chiang's firm conviction that Communism is totally unsuited to the Chinese people. Chiang traces the history of the period of "peaceful coexistence" with Russia during the years from 1924 to 1946 and indicates why this era ended in failure. He outlines the successes and failures of the free world in its struggle with World Communism and he analyzes the Communist strategy for world revolution in a very carefully considered fashion.—William P. Sears

THE VICTORIAN THEATRE. By George Rowell. N. Y. Oxford University Press. 1957. \$5.75.

George Rowell is generally recognized as a scholar whose special field is the Victorian theatre. In this excellent survey, the author stresses the fact that the Victorians looked to the stage to provide the color and excitement that were often lacking in their daily lives. As a result, the Victorian theatre was a richly decorated one and one inseparable from the Romantic school of English playwriting. The stage, itself, was held by such great figures as Edmund Kean and Sir Henry Irving while the plays came from the pens of such men as Arthur Wing Pinero, Henry Arthur Jones and Oscar Wilde. All in all, the Victorian theatre, which really lasted to the days of World War I, was a vigorous and active one. Mr. Rowell gives this chapter in the history of the English theatre all the recognition it deserves. A chronology of plays and a comprehensive bibliography are also provided.

—William P. Sears

Misconceptions: Intelligence and the I. Q.

By JOSEPH R. CAUTELA

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THE NEED FOR such a concept as "intelligence" arose when it was observed that some people seemed to perform tasks, which they encountered in everyday life, better (faster, more often correct, leading to more desirable results) than other people. In fact, it seemed that there was some type of continuum on which most people could be placed concerning their usual performance of different tasks. In other words, when the same class of stimuli (tasks) were presented, the frequency of correct responses usually varied from individual to individual while the rate of correct responses remained fairly constant for each individual.

Once the above observation was made it seemed logical to conclude that this difference in performance was due to some attribute within the individual. Now, when individual A is often confronted with the same tasks as individual B and A usually performs these tasks better, one can say that A has more of this attribute (which some people call intelligence) than B. If A and B are again confronted with similar tasks then since A has more intelligence his rate of correct responses will be greater than B's.

Intelligence

The next question that had to be

asked was "What is the nature of this attribute (intelligence)"? Some of the answers given to this question have been:

1. ability to reason
2. " to abstract
3. " to plan ahead
4. " to adapt to new situations
5. " to think
6. " to understand
7. " to learn
8. " to profit from experience
9. ' to solve problems of all kinds

All the definitions, given, are circular; individuals are observed to differ in their ability to perform particular tasks (e.g., thinking or reasoning tasks) and then it is said that people differ in their performance of these tasks because they differ in intelligence (their ability to perform these tasks). In other words, nothing more has been said than that people differ in their ability to perform these tasks because they differ in their ability to perform these tasks. It is equivalent to saying that an imbecile is not able to perform a particular task because he has "low" intelligence. The above definitions accomplish nothing more than designate the particular kind of tasks involved when the term "in-

telligence" is used, but we are still not told anything about the nature of the ability to perform these tasks.

I. Q.'s

One of the most popular ways to express an individual's performance on an intelligence test is in terms of I. Q. A common misconception held by many teachers is that I. Q. means $\frac{\text{M.A.}}{\text{C.A.}} \times 100$. But we must remember that the Stanford-Binet way of defining I. Q. is only one of a number of ways now in use.

In the Terman and Merrill revision of the Stanford-Binet the I. Q. for persons 16 or under is found by computing the M. A. in terms of the person's performance on certain tasks compared with different age groups. The subject is assigned a certain number of months credit for each item successfully passed. The mental age is then divided by the actual age of the subject and multiplied by 100 to compute the I. Q. For adults (individuals over 16 years of age) the formula is $\frac{14 \text{ months earned}}{15}$.

In the Wechsler Test the individual's performance is also expressed in terms of I. Q.; but the I. Q. is not computed in the same way as in the Binet scale. In the Wechsler Test the I. Q. is computed by expressing the individual's score in terms of its deviation from the mean of his particular age group. The mean I. Q. is arbitrarily set at 100 and the standard deviation is 15. If an individual score is one standard deviation above the mean of his age group, his I. Q. is given as 115. If the subject scores two standard deviations above the mean then his I. Q. is set at 130. The I. Q. is not determined by dividing the credits earned by the chronological age.

In other tests, such as the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Tests, the I. Q.

is also determined in a manner different from the Binet formula. Even when the Binet formula is used, such as in the Kuhlman-Anderson Tests, the M.A. is not computed in the same way so that the I. Q.'s really mean different things. Even if a test did use the I. Q. in exactly the same way as the Binet Scale, the I. Q.'s would still mean different things since the tasks used would have to be somewhat different (otherwise you would have the same test).

In view of the above statements concerning the tests that used the term I. Q. to express the individual's score, I think the following definition of I. Q. to be more realistic and less misleading:

I. Q. is a quantitative index of an individual's performance on an intelligence test (however you define intelligence) compared to other individuals who took the test.

Is I. Q. Normally Distributed

We often hear the statement that I. Q.'s are normally distributed or follow the normal curve distribution. This statement can be quite misleading, since the intelligence tests are so constructed that the scores have to be normally distributed. One of the bases for the selection and rejection of items and subjects for standardization is that the scores have to be normally distributed. It is not a surprise, then, to discover that if the finished (standardized) test is given to a random group of subjects the I. Q.'s will be normally distributed; the test was constructed that way.

Does I. Q. Remain Constant?

When we ask if I. Q.'s are constant we are really asking will the individual's scores on a particular intelligence test remain relatively stable throughout his life.

It is generally agreed that I. Q. scores

do remain relatively constant throughout life. But why is this so? It is certainly not because the individual's capacity remains relatively stable throughout his life.

It is so because the scales are so constructed that if an individual's score deviates by a certain amount from the "typical" score of the group with which he is compared, he will always deviate by the same amount when he is compared with certain age groups when he grows older. In the case of adults, where the C. A. is made constant for all adults, the items are so selected that age will not be a factor in influencing the subject's score.

The important point to remember in trying to find out some characteristics of the I. Q. is that the test constructors make certain assumptions concerning its nature from studies using a different variety of tasks given to many individuals in different age groups. From these preliminary studies the test constructors came to certain conclusions about the distribution and constancy of I. Q., then worked at constructing a test until the scores fit these conclusions. They *do not* use the actual intelligence tests to come to conclusions about the nature of the I. Q. (as defined by their tests).

If we remember that I. Q. is merely a way of expressing a test score on a particular type of test, we are less apt to think of I. Q. as something we have in us; something we carry around with us, that never changes, and falls somewhere in a certain distribution.

Some Other Misconceptions Concerning the I. Q.

Three other common misconcepts concerning the I. Q. are the following:

1. A child of eight with an I. Q. of 120 is brighter than an adult with an

I. Q. of 100. Of course this is not necessarily so. A child with an I. Q. of 120 can perform certain tasks much better than his own age group as compared to the adult and his own age group; but the child is probably not better at these tasks at the present time. In all probability the child will perform better on similar tasks than that same adult once he becomes an adult.

2. I. Q. scores reveal the degree of native intellectual capacity of an individual. Actually this is not so. All we can say is that the person's present ability on certain tasks compares in such and such a way with other people that attempt these tasks.

3. There is a tendency for some teachers to use the I. Q. as *the* explanation of the educational problems of most children. Sometimes we pay only lip service to the notion that educational problems may arise from poor teaching, emotional problems, and physical disabilities as well as from lack of ability. We must ask ourselves if such academic behavior as reading performance is as poor as it is only because of low ability.

Due to the difficulties that arise in the use of the I. Q. concept other ways to express intelligence tests scores such as percentile ranks, standard scores and stanines have been used.

Summary

The concept of intelligence is used to account for the difference in performance of certain tasks by different individuals. The definitions of intelligence really only designate the tasks involved where individuals differ. They do not tell us anything about the nature of that ability to perform these tasks.

Intelligence Tests were devised to provide a quantitative way of estimating an individual's performance on certain

tasks as compared to other individuals who are confronted with similar tasks.

One of the most popular ways to express the individual's performance, on these tasks designated as intellectual, is in terms of I. Q. I. Q. does not always mean $\frac{M.A.}{C.A.} \times 100$. This definition is only one of a number of ways that I. Q. is defined in actual practice by test constructors. It is more realistic to define I. Q. as a quantitative index of an individual's performance on an intelli-

gence test as compared to other individuals who took the test.

A great deal of misunderstanding concerning the interpretation and use of I. Q. has arisen because of the lack of knowledge, by many people who use these tests, as to how the test constructor develops and defines the I. Q.

Because of some of the difficulties in the use of the concept of an I. Q. other methods of expressing intelligence test scores have been suggested.

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Ends and Means Reconsidered

By WILLIAM H. FISHER

Superintendent of Schools
Las Vegas, New Mexico

THE ENDS-MEANS PROBLEM is one of the oldest in the realm of philosophy and ethics. It is related to education in a democracy in that the learning which is provided for the inheritors of the democratic way of life must have as one of its concerns value judgments.

Ends and means are here "reconsidered" in that their relation represents an issue as old as the organized thinking which is referred to as "philosophy." The matter lies at the heart of what ought to be and cannot be disassociated from the nature of the individual and the social order.

Philosophy of Education: the public

Irrespective of how it is labeled, philosophy of education is increasingly attracting the attention of the more inquisitive members of the lay public as well as professional educators. This is desirable. On the part of the sincere critics and even the "enemies" of public education—not to mention the friends—there is greater interest in the question of what constitutes the right kind of curriculum and instructional program. If there is one, the ultimate answer will be anchored to what thoughtful people, outside and inside professional education, conclude—their philosophy of education.

A leader of growing stature in philosophy of education is Theodore Brameld of New York University who, incidentally, has in recent years been on an as-

signment at the University of Puerto Rico. His writings are being more widely read than ever, although it would be difficult to assess the extent to which this indicates increased acceptance or approval of his major theses.

Brameld has little sympathy for the eclectic approach. He rejects eclecticism for he is out-of-sorts with the assumption that we can pick and choose from this and that philosophical viewpoint to suit ourselves. Particularly in his recent *Toward a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education* Brameld has made it plain that he believes eclecticism to be too frequently endorsed by those who lack the courage to think through to the core of social problems. The eclectic, he strongly implies, is afraid to be "categorized" lest he be called upon to stand up and be counted.

Brameld is by no means the only significant thinker on the American educational scene today. It is not my purpose to chronicle others. He is cited to illustrate that it is impossible to escape thinking about the nature of society and its future and the nature of man and his rights in any discussion which is related to the age old ends and means problem.

The Denver Post in its *Roundup* section, a feature of the Sunday edition, carried a remarkable article by Mortimer Adler titled "Can Americans Think?" dated January 27, 1957. When one considers that for years Adler was—

Hutchins and others—one of the chief and most potent critics of the pragmatic philosophy and an ardent protagonist of *The Great Books* as the foundation of the curriculum, the article is nothing short of startling.

Adler concluded that there are indeed Americans who can think and think incisively. And—praises be!—the three Americans to whom he devoted the bulk of his article were Charles S. Peirce, William James and John Dewey. A careful reading does not convince one that Adler approves of the pragmatism which these thinkers, more than any others on American soil, founded but he does make it clear that he approves of their being considered great men and capable philosophers.

Adler said: “. . . Dewey's philosophy, along with that of James, can be regarded as the most indigenous to the soil, the most original and originally American of all the philosophies we have produced.” And further: “One of Dewey's most original teachings was that means and ends are not in fact contraries, but form a continuum. If the means we choose to a certain end is successful, it must be continuous with that end! It must be the end in the making.”

Adler also stated that Dewey's “instrumentalism” was much the same as Peirce's philosophy only more developed and better articulated. And again, citing Dewey, he said: “If we detach means from ends, and treat them as external tools to be used at will for a variety of purposes, then the means will not attain their goal, but perhaps an opposite one. Thus undemocratic means, as in Soviet Russia, cannot be expected to produce results in democracy. Nor can formal education separated from life be-

yond school years result in real education.”

It is questionable as to whether such a writer as Mortimer Adler who for so many years was in the camp opposite from the pragmatists, should be accepted as an authority—especially in a synoptic version—on the subject of pragmatism. But in any case, his propounding of some philosophical virtues as they were taught by thinkers of the stature of Peirce, James and Dewey, reflects a development worthy of note. And, not incidentally, it should give those who are seriously interested in the issues of educational philosophy, new hope that old differences of opinion need *not* be categorized to the point that it will be impossible for conflicting philosophies to be synthesized.

It would seem, then, that perhaps the principal contribution of pragmatism and the one that has brought it to the fore in great strides is its stress on means-to-the-end. This is in line with the best in the American tradition. Particularly in recent years, it is consistent with our fear of and guarding against excesses which lead to dictatorship of either the Right or the Left.

This no Madison Avenue blurb: It may be said that properly understood pragmatism leads to the emergence of the individual in his true stature. Too often the grandeur that the individual truly represents has called forth all sorts of polemics about his “sacred nature” even though such fourth of July oratory rarely gets beyond that stage.

Americanism

The best features of Americanism—the protection of the individual in his civil liberties, for example—need call forth the apologies of *no* person, no teacher who sincerely supports tenets

which will help all people, everywhere. In the sense of its respect for methods, for means, pragmatism is akin to Immanuel Kant's great dictum, the one that rings more true with each passing year: "So act as to treat humanity, whether in thine own person or in that of any other, in every case as an end withal, never as means only."

Many of us—including the writer—were in college during the depression years of the 1930's. If through our own economic privation or the discussions of student groups and the more thoughtful among our professors, we formed conclusions which were called "Left-wing"—as indeed some of us did—this reflected a thinking rooted in economic causes as the source of social disorganization. It became popular to believe that the social order was responsible for the difficulties and that a new type of society would rectify all the trouble.

While it would be both cowardly and unthinking to deny everything which we once espoused, there now seems to be a reasonable basis for believing that *there is less cause to place all hope in a changed society. There is greater reason to place our faith in the individual person believing that he may be made better, more anxious to act in ethical ways. This implies a re-emphasis, comparatively speaking, upon means-to-the-end and somewhat less concern with the particular type of social order which will usher in the millennium.*

Aristotle used "politics" in the sense of civic society and said that man is by nature a political creature. Within the framework of this meaning, politics is an essential of human existence. Since man cannot live without it, it is inevitable that he will have the kind of politics that best serves him or he will become the slave of the ruthless dictator

or the pawn of the opportunistic demagogue.

No political goal will be the wrong one if the means reflect respect for the integrity of the person. Those of us who once thought that the social end was all-important and the means of minimum importance have in greater maturity, come to change our minds. And there is actually no inherent dichotomy between them. To the contrary, as Adler said—citing Peirce, James, Dewey—there must be a consistency in means and ends. If there is, democracy will both remain secure and will expand.

Becoming

Another quality that is related to ends and means is what Dewey and other pragmatists have called "becoming." This doubtless had certain origins in earlier philosophies. For instance, Heraclitus of Ephesus in the classical Greek age, taught that nothing was permanent, that all is becoming and, "One cannot step twice in the same river." Although *evidence is lacking that he had regard for social roots in his philosophy, Heraclitus in a sense anticipated the pragmatic thinkers of more than two millennia later.*

Transferred to thinking about the social order, this has relevance in that our ideas about "the good life" or "a rational society" inevitably change. With respect to this, paraphrasing Emerson, consistency as to social goals is indeed *not* a virtue. Thus, if some of us have changed our ideas in the direction of greater concern for the individual person, by the same token have we, we hope, achieved greater fluidity in our thinking about a desirable social order. Another way of putting it is that if we are always becoming, we never arrive. Of course, this type of thinking is

intolerable to those who have already made up their minds as to the precise nature of social truth. It is because of the influence of such persons—leaders, so-to-speak in Soviet Russia—that it is most difficult for liberals to get together in today's world. If a substantial number of liberals may agree that Marxism has something constructive to offer in social thought, Soviet leaders react with their oft-repeated statement that they have the only "true" interpretation of Marxism.

The Individual

Many "frontier thinkers" of the Left have ridiculed what they consider over-concern for the individual. While there has been too much name-calling by the enemies of liberal thought of all those who have sympathies which in any degree lead toward socialistic concepts, the best answer to those who in the name of "social progress" would forget about the individual is to be found in the events in Hungary during the latter part of 1956. There, on the record for the students of history years hence, lies the answer to those who doubt the individual's importance. Let it never be forgotten that in Hungary one form of socialism was crushed by another under the rationalism of "objectively necessary measures."

Teachers

All this is not, for a moment, to deny that teachers need to be more the students of what may be called "Aristotlean politics." Actually, too many teachers in the United States are frustratingly lacking in concern for *any* kind of politics and their ignorance in this field is abysmal. They may find much that they need to enlighten themselves and their students in American history, including

the intellectual history such as Vernon L. Parrington, Charles A. Beard and Merle Curti have written.

Although American culture certainly has no monopoly on provisions for the individuals, it is one of the perpetuators of that noble tradition. It is *not* chauvinistic to assert that the better phases of our history carry forward political thought that began in Ancient Greece and continued through Rome, the humanism of post-medieval years, the enlightenment, and on into the middle-class democratic revolutions of western Europe which laid the foundations of American civilization. We need *never* apologize for it. Our only apologies need come when in the name of "Americanism" civil liberties have been darkened or momentarily blacked out.

If our pride in the American tradition is coupled with an "American century" outlook which, stripped of its high-sounding phrases means simply a new American imperialism, then we will have little to be proud of in the world that lies ahead. The hiring of political scientists and historians to rewrite history for popular magazines which believe themselves to be "scholarly"—in the name of justifying foreign policies carried on by a national administration—cannot permanently change the truth.

In Summary

Significant deductions to be gleaned from the foregoing may be summarized:

The ends-means problem is as old as organized philosophical thought but has never had more relevance than now.

Interest in philosophy as it relates to educational questions is on the increase and this is desirable.

Contrasting thinkers such as Theodore Brameld and Mortimer Adler seem to agree that ends and means as related

to the individual and society are of the utmost importance.

Of all philosophies, none has been more concerned with means-to-the-end than pragmatism and Peirce, James, and Dewey, who mainly developed it, created a largely indigenous body of thought that will have enduring influence in this and other lands.

Americanism relates to more than making money and, in its larger sense, its contributions have influenced thinking and action as these involve the individual.

Liberal thinkers were, in the depression years, mostly conceiving of the nature of the social order as of paramount importance, but there has been a trend in the direction of comparatively less concern for the goals of society and greater concern for the individual as an entity.

Teachers are for the most part abysmally ignorant of politics and this ignorance should be remedied.

Teachers and all those who are engaged in the educative process—need to do more homework on philosophy and politics and they need to gain new insights into the virtue of unfixed ideas.

In their search for knowledge of politics and political systems, educators must sharpen their concept of the importance of the individual in western civilization.

Above all, so-called "lay citizens" and those who professionally are interested in what constitutes the right kind of education of Americans, must come to a new realization of the significance of ends-and-means as these have impact upon our emerging social order and the individuals who compose it.

What Schools Are Doing In Grouping Children for Reading*

By GUY WAGNER**

ONE OF THE most persistent problems facing teachers is that of differentiating instruction. Probably this need for adjusting instruction is nowhere more important than in the field of reading.

Over the years many plans have been devised for gearing reading instruction to the needs and interests of individual children. Some of these are differentiated assignments, individual projects, multi-track programs, out-of-school reading, use of work sheets, and remedial classes. Regardless of the plan, however, it probably embodies some form of grouping the pupils. It is with the ways of organizing these groups and the subsequent adaptation of instruction that the following reports are concerned.

Threading through these reports of current practices are certain underlying principles of classroom organization: (1) grouping should be flexible, (2) it should promote independent activities, (3) it should improve the social climate in the classroom, and (4) it should result in each individual becoming important to the class and consequently growing in self-respect.

*An excellent discussion of grouping may be found in *Class Organization for Instruction* (1957), by J. Wayne Wrightstone. This is one of the pamphlets in the series *What Research Says to the Teachers*, Department of Classroom Teachers, American Educational Research Association, N. E. A., Washington 6, D. C.

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Washington State Department of Public Instruction, *Planning for Effective Education in the Language Arts*. Olympia, Washington, 1954.

The writers of this bulletin point out that the main purpose for grouping is to better meet the individual differences of children. For this reason, the basis for temporary groups may be: (1) the present level of reading skills of the children, (2) their current interests, or (3) the specific projects which are being undertaken by various groups.

Reading groups should be flexible. "Pupils—should feel that the reason for grouping is not identification with a particular group of children but the specific kind of activity or instruction involved."

The teachers in the state of Washington are urged to group children in reading according to the projects that various committees have undertaken, as this is considered to be a more natural kind of organization—one which should be encouraged on all school levels. "Children who are trying to find certain kinds of information should be encouraged to work together and to explore many different kinds of materials for the information they are seeking. By virtue of their own reading ability and the challenge of the problem they are trying to solve, children will tend to find appropriate reading levels in the choice of materi-

als." Under this plan, grouping is naturally connected with the problem of providing materials of varying interests and reading levels.

It is emphasized that a variety of printed materials representing a wide range of reading be provided. For example, "Books of a series may be ordered in small numbers in keeping with the size of groups—where three or four groups are formed in a class, they should have the benefit of books selected according to the reasons for which the groups are formed." It is recommended that in general, the reading matter, including pamphlet material, should be chosen because the content is of interest to the children, not because there is exercise material in it which is related to specific reading skills.

Finally, this report stresses the importance of the *entire class* meeting together at frequent intervals to exchange experiences and ideas. "Children should not lose the opportunity to partake in the larger group meeting, nor should they feel that they are permanently identified with a *single group* inside the classroom. Emphasis in the general class meetings should always be on different interests that the groups have been working on rather than on differences in ability."

Davidson County Schools, *Language Arts Grade One-Eight*. Nashville, Tennessee, August, 1955.

This comprehensive curriculum guide devotes separate sections to reading, oral and written expression, spelling, writing, and the use of the library. In the reading section, the grouping of children is presented in an outline-type form at each of the primary grade levels. For example, suggestions for grouping at the second-grade level are divided into: (1) basis for grouping, (2) emphasis for slow learners, and (3) emphasis for faster learners.

It is pointed out that the specific reading needs of the children can be determined by a readiness checklist, a vocabulary test, a comprehension test, daily class participation, workbook achievement, and diagnostic reading tests.

Grouping should consider the interest level of the children and the level of reading that they can do independently. The size of the groups will depend upon the number of pupils with common interests and common needs. "Grouping should be flexible throughout the year—The pupil's needs determine the length of time he stays in a certain group."

In working with the slow learner, emphasis should be placed upon enjoyment and meaning, additional vocabulary help, varied exercises and techniques, short lessons, more guidance for silent reading through questioning, many discussions of word meanings, and games.

In working with the faster learner, emphasis should be placed on an enriched and varied program, longer assignments with less guidance, independent and recreational reading, work in unsupervised groups, research reading, opportunities to share with the class materials which they have read, helping and coaching others, and creative work which emerges from the reading program.

Montgomery County Public Schools, *The Language Arts—A Curriculum Guide for Elementary Schools*. Rockville, Maryland, 1956.

Four methods for differentiation and grouping are suggested. In the first place, differentiation begins with the whole class, for *common class* purposes serve to hold together and motivate reading. There should be class undertakings in which a variety of material is used, with each child reading at the level of his understanding, interest, and skill.

A second organization is that of grouping children who have similar instructional levels in reading. "When this type of grouping is used, all the members of the group use the same materials for directed reading activities. Teachers generally organize the classes into three or more such groups. Children are shifted from one group to another as progress or need dictates, thus making the groups flexible."

Children may also be grouped as they share a common problem or interest.

In such cases, an adequate collection of material on the same topic, but at various reading levels, is essential.

A fourth basis for grouping is determined by the children's particular needs as their work in reading progresses. For instance, difficulty in selecting the main idea may be a common problem with several youngsters who will need particular help on this problem. Another group of youngsters may have difficulty in dealing with the sounds represented by a certain letter. "When other needs in comprehension or word recognition occur, corresponding groups are formed. In such groupings, difficulties may be cleared up before they become serious."

The writers of this publication point out that regrouping throughout the year is a desirable practice. "No one basis for grouping is adequate for accomplishing all the aims of the class. Therefore, the composition of the group changes as the purposes change. Common needs and purposes always dictate the composition of the group."

Tacoma Public Schools, *Planning a Reading Program Adjusted to Individual Needs*. Tacoma, Washington, 1955.

It is evident from the title of this publication that the Tacoma Public Schools are concerned about differentiating instruction in reading according to the needs of individual pupils.

Beginning on page 26, there is an important emphasis upon what to do for the children who enter junior high school who have been learning to read more slowly than the average. The writers say that these children can usually be classified into three groups.

The first group includes those children who are reading about one year below the seventh-grade level, and an examination of their records indicates that their progress has usually been consistently slower than the average. A further examination of their intellectual records usually indicates that their intelligence quotients fall in the low nineties, their general school performance parallels their progress in reading, and that they are not reading disability cases but, instead, are slow learners who are prob-

ably working up to their mental ages. It is suggested that these children should have the opportunity to work in the regular two-hour seventh-grade group where the teacher has the opportunity to plan programs according to their needs. These children should have instructional materials on the fifth and easy sixth-grade levels with continued systematic instruction in reading skills.

The second group includes those children who have been progressing *much more slowly* than the average because their rate of learning is slower than the average. These children have I.Q.'s in the eighties or below although they may be achieving up to their mental ages. Actually, if they are reading on the fourth-grade level, they are working up to their mental ages. Teachers should recognize that these children *cannot* be brought "up to grade," and that a program must be planned which will provide reading instruction at the fourth-grade level or below. "These children need special scheduling although some of them may adjust better in the regular two-hour seventh-grade group—modified classes, special classes, individualized programming, or other types of adjusted programs must be planned for many of them."

The third group includes a few children who are *true reading disability cases*, that is, children with average to superior intelligence whose reading ages are far below their mental ages. These children have not been able to learn to read successfully because of special handicaps, although they usually do average to superior work in arithmetic and other areas not affected by reading and spelling disability. Although these children normally should be scheduled in the regular seventh-grade group, they should also be scheduled in a remedial reading class. Because these children have potential capacities for rapid gains in reading, they will often reach a point, in a relatively short time, where they can work normally with regular groups. These are the children who can profit most by wise handling and competent instruction in a remedial reading program.

Mishawka Public Schools, *Language Arts Reading Course of Study—Grades 1-6*. Mishawaka, Indiana, 1956.

Beginning on page 21, the writers of this curriculum guide discuss the *group plan*. They say that "Since the children in grade two and grade three will represent many different levels of reading ability, it would be advisable to divide each class into several reading groups. The reading grade level of the child, his mental capacity, and his specific reading needs will determine in which group he will be placed. In speaking to the groups, use terms which do not indicate levels of reading ability, such as Mary's group, Bob's group, Helen's group."

It is also suggested that the content in readers today is organized around centers of interest, such as stories about animals and children of other lands. Because of this plan of organizing reading matter, groups will be able to examine several different sets of readers in locating material related to a center of interest. This is especially true of advanced third-grade groups. Organizing the reading activities around a unit and using all available reading material pertaining to the unit will stimulate the habit of reading widely and developing many meaningful concepts.

It is also suggested that although some of the children entering the second-grade may be able to begin their reading program with the basal second reader, some children may need to read supplementary first readers, and a few

may need to read supplementary primers. In all cases, however, the reading program should be adjusted to the reading abilities of the children.

Long Beach Public Schools, *Guide to Independent Work in First Grade*. Long Beach, California, 1954.

It is suggested that early in the school year the children be divided into three groups on the basis of their reading readiness or reading ability and that each group be organized so that they may be engaged in a different activity at the same time. To illustrate, some of the children would meet with the teacher in the reading group; a second group could be working independently at the tables doing assigned work related to that which has been developed with the teacher during a previous reading period, and a third group would center its activities around such experiences as working with clay, painting, drawing, remaking chart stories, working with puzzles, and quiet games related to the reading program.

During the period, the three groups are to be rotated so that each has an equal opportunity to participate in the three types of activities.

A chart at the bottom of page three indicates what Mary's group (slower group) would be doing during these three phases of the approximately one-hour period; what John's group (average learners) would be doing; and the plan which the better readers (Tom's group) would be following.

Letters to the Editor

(Reactions to articles published herein are solicited)

November 21, 1957

Education
Attn: Editor
The Palmer Company
Hingham, Massachusetts
Gentlemen:

Garry Myers, in "An Overlooked Cause of Mounting Juvenile Delinquency," *Education*, October 1957, has finally found a real cause. He has really pointed the finger. We need search no more. The 'experts' are the villains. The 'experts,' who have for years advocated "... The long-prevailing theory and practice of letting little children do about as they please. . . ."

I admit he has a point. There ARE children, especially when in groups just out for a good time, who get in deeper than they mean and get into trouble. This does make a statistic on crime but is this person a delinquent? In my book a person isn't a delinquent until this type of action becomes habitual. One such outbreak does not make him a delinquent.

Many of these children are involved in crimes that would have been prevented if there were 'healthy inhibitions.' There are undoubtedly many cases where a low pat on the back would be effective but it has been years and years since anyone of note said this was not true. These 'experts' have long said that limits should be set and these limits should be kept. They have maintained that a good but fair spanking could be the inevitable outcome of anti-social actions. Only a very few—a very few—really advocated that the repressing of emotions and actions was bad and should never be attempted.

And during the same years the 'experts' have maintained time after time that a loving warm atmosphere is necessary to proper emotional growth. I

admit author Myers has given lip service to this but little more. When an 'expert' advised against the spanking of a child he did not say that is all there is to it. It was intended that some other sort of action would be taken. It was assumed that the adult would be able to act in an adult way and that something more subtle and better would result in the way of discipline. I always remember an incident in my shop class as I saw a large student strike a smaller one in the face. Naturally I was annoyed but fortunately they were on one side of the power saw and I was on the other, for by the time I had gotten around the saw I had time to reflect on the fitness of my discipline as I struck my student saying, "We don't hit people in here." By the time I got there I had a more mature plan in mind. It worked effectively. My students both remained a friend and such an incident never took place again in my class. According to Myers a good smack would have created the same results and I doubt it.

The main point here is that when I neglected to strike the student, I didn't let it go at that. I did something else, better. Our 'experts'—with a few exceptions—had the same thing in mind.

Dr. Myers said, "The impression given is that with enough help for parents and children by psychiatrists, psychologists, psychiatric and social workers and other similar experts (that awful word again) to clear up inner disturbances, there would be practically no anti-social behavior in children and youths."

In the first place, if this were done with the genuine delinquents I believe this would be true. These 'experts' know what they are doing as a rule, or at least more than the balance of the populations would know. They are not

simply trying to perpetuate their jobs by claiming skills not possessed. If enough were available then delinquency could be curbed.

There is a certain amount of conflict in most young people while growing up and occasionally these do get into trouble which could have been prevented by a stronger hand at home. But the boy who steals car after car; the boy who again and again breaks windows, street lights, or needlessly slashes the seats in the theatre, or the boy who

breaks and enters is not the sort that will be helped with strong arms and paddles. Contrary to author Myers' whole article the methods really advocated by *most* of the experts—and not Myers' method—is one that will work and do the most good in the end.

Sincerely yours,

Jack Down
Guidance Director
East Lansing High School
East Lansing, Michigan

Rejoiners

By GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS

APPARENTLY the difference between what I wrote in the October issue of *Education* and the response to it by Guidance Director Jack Down is partly a difference of semantics. But I don't see how Mr. Down got the idea from what I wrote there that I believe he should have used his fist on that student in the shop. What I said about the use of pain for establishing the foundation of healthy inhibitions was limited to the pre-school child.

Indeed, I've often been saying, for a number of years, to parents in my syndicated newspaper column, "Aim to be done with corporal punishment before the child enters school."

The point I tried to make is that teaching the tot effectively in his early years to respect the word No is the first essential to preparing him for healthy self-control and respect for the rights of others as he grows older. And let me add that the average young parents suppose from what I can ascertain that the rank and file of experts don't believe this is so.

Mr. Down is only partially correct in

saying, "These 'experts' have long said that limits should be set and these limits should be kept."

As a rule, they drop the matter there. They leave the average young parent puzzled about just how far she should be firm. Apologetically, they usually say *that if you are sure* you should spank, it should be limited to the last resort. Or if your patience is tried beyond your endurance and you whack the tot, don't feel remorse; it helps clear the air.

I never could see how either is desirable procedure. In the "last resort" or when the parent is tried beyond her patience, this parent is hardly fit to whack the child or be fit then to profit from the whack.

But I wish Mr. Down would name a few experts who not only define limitations but also propose a program to parents for training the young child consistently to respect these limitations without their having to get mad or face a last resort.

A close approach to such a program for teaching the toddler the meaning of No appears in that recent book "Child-

hood and Adolescence" by L. Joseph Stone and Joseph Church (Random House). After pointing out that there must be some limitations for the toddlers, they say: "The establishment of taboos need not be difficult. Some taboos (such as those applied to the electric toaster) are best conveyed by a bark of 'No!' reinforced when necessary by a slap on the hand, although usually the parent's tone of voice is enough. But since toddlers forget easily, and since forbidden fruits are always the most alluring, several repetitions may be needed."

But why the bark of No? Why not the mere assertion of this word in a moderate tone, accompanied by the "bite?"

Be it said for Stone and Church that they devote much space to the ways of making desirable behavior attractive, to love and understanding. They seem to imply that with some limitations respected by the toddler (even older child), there are more opportunities for him to enjoy the kindness, affection, and love that he deserves.

It's been my contention for some years that one of the strongest arguments for teaching the toddler effectively the meaning of No is to make it more nearly possible for him to get abundant love. How can any parent be always gentle, lovely, and serene with the tot who has little or no regard for the authority of this parent or anybody else? Restraint without love is barbarity. But love without restraint is hardly possible.

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DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*
School of Education, New York University

BETTS BASIC READERS, SECOND EDITION, THE LANGUAGE ARTS SERIES. By Emmett Albert Betts and Carolyn M. Welch. New York. American Book Company. 1958.

Into a world of many, many basal readers so similar in design, teaching procedure, and content, comes this series—Betts Basic Readers, Second Edition. Like a strong fresh wind these readers arrive combining the best of the old features with the best in up-to-date stories, philosophy, and easy-to-teach lessons.

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Throughout interest is held with excellent art work and the wide variety of reading material: fantasy, factual material, realistic stories, fairy tales, poetry, plays. All material was selected on the basis of research into children's interests at each level. Not only a wide variety of types of material, but a wide variety of children's writers gives each child experiences in reading many different styles of writing.

Word Learning, as presented in this series, appears to be so simple and uncomplicated it is hard to imagine children not being able to become independent in applying word learning skills early in their reading experiences.

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The series is made up of a two-level readiness program. *Fun for All* stresses oral language development. *Ready! Go!* continues a complete reading readiness program and includes a vocabulary of seven words. Both books can be used as either consumable or non-consumable.

Big Book Stories is a big book containing new stories not found in the story books. The back is made up of lined experience chart paper. This book is designed to be used for group activities.

There are three pre-primers followed by primer and first reader. The second and third grade program is made up of two different levels per grade. Grades four through six have one book per grade.

Two color study books are available—one for the three pre-primers and one study book per book afterward. The teachers guides are bound in the story books or can be obtained in separate editions.

Recognizing that individual differences increase with the growth and development of children, Dr. Betts and Miss Welch have done an excellent job of starting with individual differences, providing for the growth of each child at his own rate, and ending with individual differences.

A fresh, new design for learning—Betts Basic Readers, Second Edition—emphasizing the three essentials of reading: interest, word learning, and thinking—will be welcomed by elementary teachers.—(M. G. L.)

SOVIET EDUCATION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY. By Alexander G. Korol. N. Y. The Technology Press (M. I. T.) and John Wiley and Sons. 1957. \$8.50.

The structure and potentialities of the Soviet system of education are carefully set forth and nicely evaluated in this study of an important segment of contemporary education. Both the strengths and the weaknesses of Soviet training are pointed out and discussed. The objectives and the rationale of the Soviet system of education provide the framework and relationships to Soviet communism are indicated. Especial emphasis is, both rightly and timely, put on the Soviet plan and method in science and technical education. The findings of this study point up some vital questions that cry for solution in American education.—William P. Sears

THE OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE AND EDUCATION. By Laurence Thomas, Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$6.00.

This book examines the socio-economic significance of pre-job preparation and adjustment from the broad social viewpoint of achieving a more equitable and democratic distribution of the nation's labor force. Attention is drawn to the present distribution of workers among occupations and an inquiry into the reasons for this distribution is made. Throughout the stress is on the importance of seeking an appropriate distribution of the total labor force. The volume should be of especial value to vocational and technical educators in both secondary schools and in community colleges and to all vocational guidance counselors.—William P. Sears

THE STORY OF CIVILIZATION: THE REFORMATION. By Will Durant. N. Y. Simon and Schuster. 1957. \$7.50.

This is another volume in Will Durant's monumental work, "The Story of Civilization." Masterly and scholarly as have been the earlier volumes, the present book covers history of European civilization from Wyclif to Calvin, from 1300 to 1564. The ideas, the beliefs, and the conflicts of the age of the Reformation are presented in the vivid fashion that is so characteristic of Dr. Durant's writing. The work begins with a consideration of religion in general and the problems and conditions of the Roman Church in the two centuries before Luther. He points up

the events in England, Germany, and Bohemia that presaged the advent of the Lutheran Reformation. The text next moves on to a study of the Reformation itself with Luther, Zwingli, Calvin and John Knox as principal figures in the drama. Much attention, too, is given to Russia and Orthodoxy and to Islam. Nor does Dr. Durant neglect such facets of life in those hectic days as law and economy, morals and manners, art and music, literature, science, and philosophy. Throughout the volume, there is a majestic sweep of continuity and perspective.—William P. Sears

MARTIN LUTHER. By Harry Emerson Fosdick. N. Y. Random House. 1956. \$1.50.

Harry Emerson Fosdick, for many years pastor of the Riverside Church in New York, has written this simple and forthright biography of Martin Luther. Young readers will follow the career of this turbulent monk who did so much to create the Reformation with interest.—PAUL ZANKOWICH

THE DAUGHTER. By Borghild Dahl. Illustrations by Hans H. Helweg. N. Y. E. P. Dutton. 1956. \$3.00.

Against a background of the Norway of the 1860's, Borghild Dahl, author of the popular *Homecoming*, tells the story of Elise, fifteen year old daughter of the Haalands. The theme is that of Elise's training, the training of any young girl of a good family in that era in Norway. Although Elise rebels inwardly at the strict routines, the basic ideas, the moral concepts and standards become part of her. When she has to make a serious decision, her training leads her to make the only decision that was right for her.—PAUL ZANKOWICH

OXFORD LIFE. By Dacre Balsdon. London. Eyre and Spottiswoode. 1957. 25/-.

The serious and not-so-serious sides of undergraduate life are told in this utterly delightful book. The volume will introduce those who as yet know nothing of Oxford, or know only its buildings and monuments, to the life which goes on there during the University year. It explains some of the present-day problems of the University and the colleges and it describes the changes that have followed the 1939 war. Mr. Balsdon went up to Oxford as an undergraduate in 1920, and save for a break during the war, has been a don since 1926.—William P. Sears

AMERICAN PANORAMA. Edited by Eric Larrabee. N. Y. New York University Press. 1957. \$4.95.

Here is a book that many Americans will want to have and which should become required reading for all foreign students who came to our colleges and universities. Fifteen critics have prepared 350 book-and-author profiles and the result is a superb commentary on contemporary American civilization. The volume was prepared to introduce and illuminate the 350 books chosen by the Carnegie Corporation as most descriptive of life in the U. S. A.—William P. Sears

A HANDBOOK FOR THE AMATEUR THEATRE. By Peter Cotes, (Editor). N. Y. Philosophical Library. 1957. \$12.50.

This accurately titled book urges amateur theatres to adopt high artistic standards, and gives specific advice on how to attain them. The editor, a well-known director in Great Britain, has written about half of the book, including sections on playwriting, acting, producing, and stage and business management. These chapters and others on technical subjects are similar to those in many books of American authorship, although the examples and illustrations are largely from the British theatre. An informative chapter by several contributors describes amateur theatre activities in the British Commonwealth. Those engaged in non-professional, community theatre enterprises will find the book of special interest.

Fred C. Blanchard
Professor of Dramatic Art and
Chairman of the Department
of Dramatic Art
New York University

AN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE. By Adolphe E. Meyer. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$6.00.

The importance of education as a facet in cultural development of the American people is stressed throughout this scholarly and penetrating volume. Adolphe E. Meyer has long been recognized as one of our country's great experts in the field of history of education. Those who have been fortunate to have been students in his classes attest to his keen mind, his careful scholarship, his incisive wit, and his nice sense of values. Dr. Meyer is a cool

critic and, although he restrains himself, at times, his rapier is put to good use as he reviews in this volume what has been done in education in the past and contemporary periods. It is Dr. Meyer's thesis that education is a reflection of the social and, consequently, he presents much of the fabric of American society in these pages as a necessary and imperative background for his consideration of the history of education. Many have looked upon books and courses in the history of education as bores—necessary or unnecessary. Readers of this book will discover the fact that the history of education can be fascinating, vital, and functional when such a scholar as this author and teacher presents his facts and interprets them in relation to the social fabric. Unquestionably, the finest treatment of the history of education to date.—W. P. Sears

HELPING TEACHERS UNDERSTAND PRINCIPALS. By Wilbur A. Yauch. New York. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957.

This is a forthright discussion of a situation that is frequently fraught with more heat than light. Eliminating the autocrat and dealing only with selected problems faced by the principal who is democratically oriented, the author suggests the essential adjustive roles of the teacher. The approach is realistic. It is possible that some teachers will be unable to identify themselves but all will readily recognize their co-workers. It has all been said before but it needed to be said again, and in this way. The last chapter, "The Principal Teachers Appreciate" is recommended reading for Principals.

Ray O. Wolf
Portland State College
Portland, Oregon

AN INTRODUCTION TO A STUDY OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION. By Vernon Mallinson. Macmillan. 1957. \$3.50.

It is the thesis of Mr. Mallinson that education is the expression of a nation's traditions and aspirations and an indication of its future policy. With this hypothesis in mind, Mr. Mallinson investigates the historical, political, and economic aspects of the Western European countries in relation to the purposes and methods of their educational systems and compares them with those of

the United States and Russia. Of especial interest is Mr. Mallinson's treatment of such educational leaders as Rousseau, Froebel, Pestalozzi, Montessori, Kerschensteiner, Decroly, and Dewey and their impact on current educational theory and practice.—W. P. Sears

THE ADOLESCENT VIEWS HIMSELF: A PSYCHOLOGY OF ADOLESCENCE. By Ruth Strang. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1957. \$6.50.

There are some novel and unique things about this book that will ensure its attractiveness and value as a text for college courses in adolescent psychology. These factors can succinctly be stated as a realistic and functional approach to the problems of today's youth. The central theme of the book is the self-concept as it permeates adolescent development. Dr. Strang shows how adolescents see themselves, the world in which they live, and the future which lies before them. Actual statements of adolescents are related to the principles of adolescent psychology with the result that the reader sees the adolescent as he develops and learns how the adolescent feels about his problems, relationship, and the values that constitute living. There are pertinent illustrations, fine questions, and projects suggested for further study. An excellent feature of the book is the suggested reading list which includes not only the standard words on the psychology of adolescence but also some fiction, popular books, and articles. These are included at the end of each chapter.—William P. Sears

CROWN OF EMPIRE: THE STORY OF NEW YORK STATE. By Paul Eldridge. N. Y. Thomas Yoseloff, Inc. 1957. \$5.00.

This is a fascinating history of New York State told with unusual skill and rare perception. The author is a distinguished educator, poet, playwright and story-teller.

A publisher's note indicates that the volume is "a leisurely and intensely personal account of the state—of its history, lore, and legends, of its geography, its industry, its many points of interest."

It should also be stated that it differs from other good histories of the state in that besides being comprehensively factual, it is also delightfully poetic and socially reflective. The author, as H. L. Mencken once said of him, is "an authentic artist." Clarence Dar-

row praised him for his "deep sense of social justice." This book clearly reveals these qualities of the author. Each significant event of the past is skillfully related to the present conditions and happenings not only in this state but outside of its borders as well. The descriptions of early and current New York life and landscape are admirable as are the stories enacted against these vivid backgrounds.

The book is interspersed with beautiful gems of wise, lucid and amusing observations. Thus: "There was more religious freedom in New Netherland than in New England. Red noses are more generous than blue."

"Man has always lived in glass houses, and it ill becomes any generation to stand in judgment on another." "The narrow, crooked streets around Wall Street bear witness alike to the circuitous foot-paths of our ancestors and the circuitous financial paths of our contemporaries." "A trip up the Hudson . . . the boat sailing like a lighted altar and the fluted golden reflection in the water like pipes of a vast organ." "Leave Truth to the metaphysicians and teach us the truths." "New York is essentially *people*. Other cities in the world surpass it in history, in beauty, in charm, but there is something about New Yorkers *en masse* that is unique and fascinating." "Civilization is gauged not by the jubilation of the majority but by the laments of the minority. Civilization is the elimination of the scapegoats." "Those who bark at another's fame have none of their own to trumpet."

For "core" classes **CROWN OF EMPIRE** could be an admirable textbook, for it combines history, geography, literature, citizenship and biography in an integrated and reliable manner. For high school teachers and students of the social studies, this different and rewarding social history of New York State is a must.

Hymen Alpern, Principal
Evander Childs High School, N. Y.

THE NATURE OF CREATIVE THINKING—A Monograph. Sponsored by the Industrial Research Institute, Inc. New York: The New York University Press. 1957. P. 73. \$3.00.

The meeting together of a team of experts in psychology, philosophy, industry, science,

government, and the arts is, in itself, an event to be noted. That this august body devoted its time to a study of the nature of creative thinking is indicative of the growing respectability of the topic; an issue so intangible that neither scientists nor artists seem to arrive at any conclusion; a subject which has been untouchable by most scholars, left only to dilettantes in aesthetics.

Although creativity in science, the arts, and other areas were pointed up at the Skytop symposium the colligation of the thinking indicated that the conference contributed broader meaning to creative thinking. In education is the need for better understandings of and more research in the creative experience in order to train the average man to face creative decisions, as well as to train scientists and artists in the creative process.

The research data and ideas presented by the members of the Skytop symposium offered many facets of creative education. Rand pointed up the significance of creativity in present day social, economic, and political living, stressing the progress which has been made through invention. Northrop discussed the philosophic aspects of creativity; that "The world of man is not only the immediately observed fact, the pure fact, but is also the theoretically known, inferred fact"; that "creativity is of the essence of both scientific inquiry and artistic endeavor." Compton gave a vivid example of the growth and development of creative thought in science and of how an idea expands from one individual to another. Hanes explained that government is enriched by individual creative thinking. Thurstone was concerned with the psychological aspects of creativity—the hypotheses, the psychological tests and studies which have been made. Ferren explained the creative activity of the painter and the modern approach to painting. Krenek outlined the aspects of musical composition and the qualities inherent in music. Wilbur described the creative experience in the writing of poetry.

Many phases of creativity were presented by conference members. However, one basic factor of agreement, it seems, was that creativity must come from within the individual. The creative experience begins with an urge,

a disturbing element, a "thorn in the flesh," an irritation. Following the inner urge is the need to discover the areas related to the irritation. What is previously known about it? Here some differences exist between the scientist and the artist. The scientist will search for facts which can be tangibly stated. The artist is inclined to search more intuitively for facts which he senses from observation or experiences in the past. Finally the creative person not only has the urge, then searches for data, but will do something about it. Perhaps Arthur Compton most concisely expresses the fundamental thinking of the group when he states, "First of all, to my mind, the thing which is the essence of creativity is the *decision* to do something about it when you are irritated. I would agree that irritation is the first step, but the decision to do something about it is the essence of creativity."

George K. Ross
Professor of Art Education
New York University

RELIGION AND THE PSYCHOLOGY OF JUNG. By Raymond Hostie. N. Y. Sheed & Ward. 1957. \$3.50.

This long awaited book will be more than welcome to all followers of Jungian psychology as well as to psychologists and teachers generally. The author has made an exhaustive study of the work of Jung and presented a penetrating analysis of his theories. His personal contacts with Jung have enriched the study. He has analyzed the empirical method in analytical psychology and presented its fundamental views. Such themes as psychotherapy and spiritual direction, the psychology of religion, etc., are clearly treated

—S. M. Amatora

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EDUCATION

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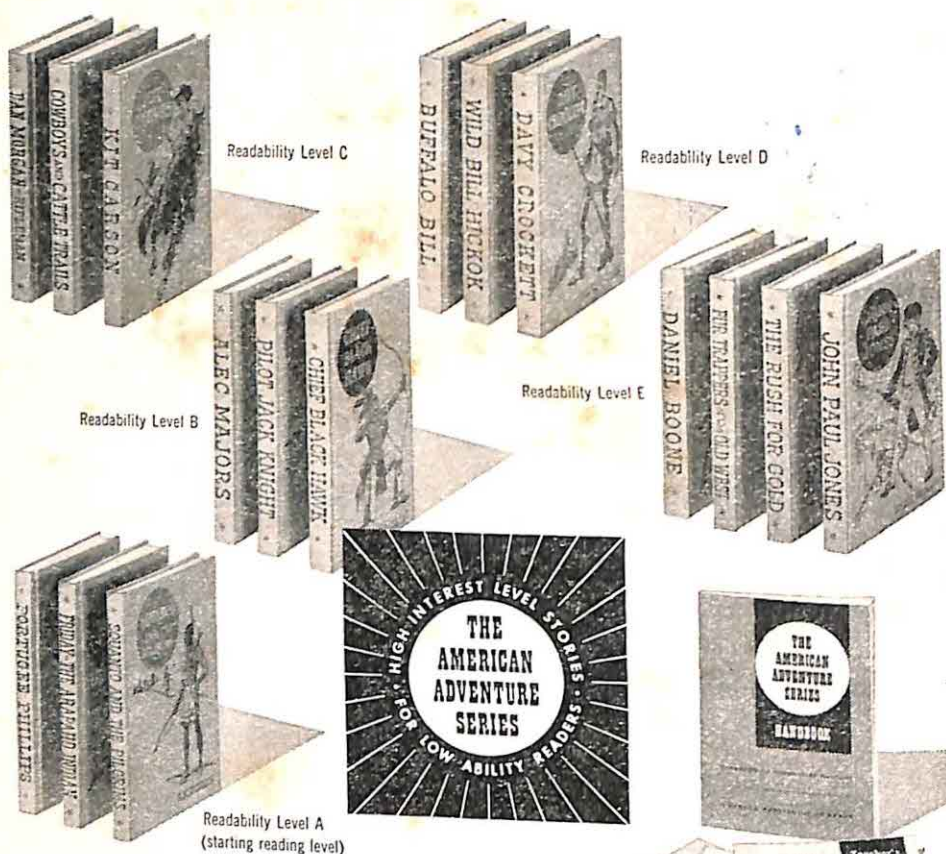
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EDUCATION

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My Hassle *with the* First Grade Language*

By DR. SEUSS

La Jolla, California

WHILE BACK there was a tremendous ruckus going on about the reading problems of American school kids. And I, who knew nothing about primary education, got flung into the mixer quite by accident. Somebody . . . John Hersey . . . casually suggested in an article in *Life* that I was the type of writer who should write a first grade reader.

So, with innocent conceit, I said, "Why not?" All I needed to do, I figured, was find a whale of an exciting subject. This would make the average 6-year-old want to read like crazy. None of the old dull stuff. Like Dick has a ball. Dick likes the ball. The ball is red, red, red, red.

* * *

Within an hour I found a dozen hot subjects. I merely watched my nephew Norval, who was visiting us, watch television. I discovered that Norval was fascinated by 'most everything we adults are . . . murders, nautch dancers, beer commercials, the home life of the ant, jungle tigers . . . submarines. But the thing that thrilled the eyes practi-

cally out of his head was a chiller-diller expedition scaling Mt. Everest.

So, bright and early the very next morning, I informed a distinguished schoolbook publisher that his worries about kids reading were over forever. I would give first graders the adventures they craved, take them scaling the peaks of Everest at 60 degrees below zero.

"Truly exciting," said the publisher rather sadly. "But you can't use the word *scaling*. You can't use the word *peaks*. You can't use *Everest*. You can't use 60. You can't use *degrees*. You can't . . .

"Now look here!" I bristled. "You're talking old fashioned. Why, on television that story thrilled the pants off Norval."

* * *

"Of course," sighed the publisher. "On television he understood it all. But he was looking at pictures and listening to *spoken* words. He wasn't reading *printed* words. All he knows of printed words are the pitiful few that his teacher has struggled to make him rec-

*This article is reprinted from the November 17, 1957 issue of THE CHICAGO TRIBUNE by special permission of Polly Goodman, Children's Book Editor, and Dr. Seuss (Theodore S. Geisel). Dr. Seuss is the author-illustrator of *The Cat and the Hat*, *How the Grinch Stole Christmas*, and many other books for children.

ognize. At his age he couldn't tell the printed word Everest from pineapple-upside-down cake."

I mulled this over. "Would you buy a book about a jungle tiger?" I asked limply.

"Certainly," said the publisher. "With two minor changes. Change the tiger into a cat. Change the jungle into a house."

Then, as gently as he could, he dropped a ton of bricks all over me. He handed me a tiny little list of words. "These are the words that a first grade Norval can recognize."

I stared. I could have engraved the whole list, personally, on the head of a pin. They were thrillers . . . like *am*, *is*, *but*, *if*, *in*, *into*, *no*, *yes*. Words full of great adventure . . . like *milk* and *mitten* and *mop*. And a number of super-humdingers . . . like *lump* and *bun* and *string*. I saw the word *sick* and that's how I felt very.

"Now you take this list," I heard the publisher saying. "Take it home. Cut loose! Create a rollicking carefree story. Pack it with action. Make it tingle with suspense! Embellish it with gay brilliant rhymes and bubbling rhythms. And one more thing. Repeat the words. Repeat! Repeat! Taking care, of course, not to be boring."

The next thing I knew, it was six months later. I was home, staring red-eyed at the list, trying to find some usable words besides *cat* and *hat* that rhymed. The list had a *daddy*. But it didn't have a *caddy*. I found myself snarling, "faddy, maddy, saddy, waddy."

It had words like *thank*. But no *blank*, *crank*, *frank* or *stank*. There was the word *something*. But something only rhymes with numb-thing. And even if numb-thing were on the list, which it

wasn't, how in blazes can you use something like numb-thing in a story?

And what *was* my story anyhow? At one point I spent three excruciatingly painful weeks grinding out a yarn about a King Cat and a Queen Cat. Then I called in Norval as an expert consultant to read it. When he came to the word King, he read it just fine. But when he came to the word Queen, he just stood there blowing bubbles.

In a real cold sweat, I rechecked my list thoroly. The poor queen, not being registered, died a horribly swift death. And the king died of sheer loneliness shortly thereafter.

Norval, feeling sorry for me because I wasn't bright enough to write for him, was now dropping in occasionally after school to offer help. "Why don't you have your cat run a Quiz show?" was one of his suggestions. Nervously, I fine-tooth combed the list for *quiz*. I got a shock that threw me into terrible confusion. "Q" had evidently been dropped right out of the alphabet completely.

This appalling discovery so unnerved me that for two solid weeks the only subjects I could think of at all were Q ones. Like "Quarrying for Quartz." And "The Quitter in the Quicksand." "Quilting Bees and Quails." And "A First Grade Biography of John Quincy Adams."

Then after I'd mastered *that* psychosis, I happened to notice that Z had been banished as a letter also! And for weeks all I could think of were zealous Zulu zebras zipping from New Zealand to the Zuider Zee.

By this time, my first grade nephew, Norval, mysteriously stopped dropping in and I had to bungle along entirely on my own. How I ever managed to manipulate that maddening jigsaw puzzle of

itsy-bitsy-witsy wordies into any kind of story at all, I don't know.

All I know is that when the story was finally finished, I was dealt the most painful blow of all. I took it around to Norval to see how he liked it.

Norval looked down his nose at the manuscript. "Don't bother me with that kid stuff," he snorted. "I've long since graduated from the first grade. I'm already learning calculus."

BOOK REVIEWS

THE QUEEN'S HEART OF GOLD. By Sister Mary Amatora, O. S. F. New York, N. Y. Pageant Press, Inc. 1957. \$2.50.

Twenty-five years ago in the little Belgium town of Beauraing The Mother of Christ appeared thirty-three times to five children. The Queen's Heart of Gold is the first complete account, in English, of this extraordinary phenomenon, approved by the Roman Catholic Church. The preface has been written by Archbishop Cushing of Boston.

Sister Amatora, an associate editor of *EDUCATION* has told the story of the apparitions of Our Lady and their profound effect on the hearts and minds of the children in straight-forward style, with reverence and delicate simplicity. The sequence of events, the names of persons and places, the quotations attributed to participants, are all set down with meticulous veracity. The religious symbolism is beautifully expressive.

The publishers have brought out the book in an attractive format illustrated with photographs of the children and the locale. This is a book that will appeal to all Catholics.

—R. P. P.

AMERICAN EDUCATION IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY. By I. L. Kandel. Cambridge. Harvard University Press. 1957. \$5.00.

The picture of American education in the first half of the twentieth century is clearly drawn in this volume by the celebrated professor emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University. Dr. Kandel is revered as our foremost scholar in the field of comparative education and his vast knowledge and keen insight are manifest in this lively book. Among the topics considered are the present situation in public education, the public and its relation to the schools, education of the child, education of the adolescent, the teaching profession, and a final and most provocative consideration of education conceived

as a facet of the nation's unfinished business.
—William P. Sears

A STRATEGY FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION. By Robert Hendry Mathewson. N. Y. Harper's 1958. \$5.00.

The author of this timely and rather unorthodox book, a professor of education associated with the Board of Higher Education in New York City, considers some of the basic issues now existing in American education and which must be faced and solved if democracy is to reach its fullest development. The book is designed for the professional educator, members of boards of education, and the lay citizen. The present educational processes are carefully identified and the author develops a psycho-social theory of education. The work is no mere contribution to the ammunition stockpile upon which "essentialists" and "progressives" draw but, rather, it is a fearless approach to the basic challenges of a dynamic society.—W. P. S.

INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY. By Eugene V. Schneider. N. Y. McGraw-Hill. 1958. \$6.75.

The social structure of large-scale industrial organization is carefully and very broadly studied in this unique and very important book. The author stresses the importance of role playing and he examines the various relationships that exist among the individuals who have significant places in the industrial picture. Much attention is given to the place of labor organizations in contemporary industrial society and emphasis is put on how these organizations have arisen from the social structure. A final theme is the relation between industry, including labor, and the local and national community which both affects industry and is affected by it. The volume will serve as a useful and challenging text for advanced students in schools of commerce, business administration, public administration, social work, education, and economics.—William P. Sears

Goal—Reading Steadiness

By ANN ESS MORROW

Pontiac High School

Pontiac, Michigan

I MUST FIRST of all be knowing of the three-dimension aspect of the reading area. Gradual, continuous, admittedly complex it is. I act upon the knowledge. I gladden at its vastness of research that never ends, yet much appalled am I that thousands find laborious a skill so rudimentary.

I know that there are those who are traditional in thought—who feel that we have gone astray in leaving formal training in the three-R basic facts.

Progressives answer promptly only methods are replaced—that we give added stress to what the child needs in life, to that which he will want to use in reaching toward his goals.

Yet both philosophies accept the fact that reading can be much improved within our schools and out. And reading clinics thrive.

Awareness now is mine that children vary in their needs, that complexity of reading oftentimes produces fears by which many are impeded who know not the written symbol and who cannot comprehend it without mastery of skills.

I must help the ones who struggle and appear to be malnourished, for I know that they will tire truly long before the rest.

I must also aid the children who have learned to read with ease, for capacity is rarely reached where reading is concerned.

The help that I provide the child must cheerfully be given so he will feel within himself the joy that reading brings.

Environmental factors of the children must concern me, else problems will project themselves 'twixt open books and eyes.

The child must somehow meet success in what he seeks to do, and he should see that he must read if he would LEARN to read.

I must remember if the boys and girls are qualified to be in standard classrooms of the public schools that they are truly able to be taught to read. Responsibility for this is mine.

And I will seek to meet them where they are and carry on from there, acknowledging with Dickinson "The legacy of books is wings."

And if my struggling reader would dismantle words and look at parts the way a youth examines a dissected watch, he then must learn to reassemble words and see them all as pleasing entities.

Vocabularies based on sight we early must acquire, but children still must know the words when syllables are changed. I show them words in settings that are many, not just one—and point to shapeliness of form and stress configuration.

As I cultivate improvement, I must differentiate between the reader quite disabled and the learner who is slow.

I realize analysis is more than structure matter. Phonetic, too, it is, and visual, and these are facts that guide.

Diagnostic methods are alike on any level. This I must remember as I teach with flexibility that meets the many needs of those that truly seek to learn.

I must remember the direction I would steer the boys and girls, yet not prohibit detour routes or mark roads closed from which there could be gain.

I must not hurry children into other fields of print just because they have been through the reading one. I must concoct with skill new goals to lure them into reading once again those paragraphs which bring to them the satisfaction of familiarity. Yet the degree to which I use this means I carefully must heed lest so-called reading be a mere matter of rote.

And when I deal with learners who are diffident, I must banish the abstractions and employ but the concrete.

I must become adept at setting purposes attractively so boys and girls will long to read the lesson I have planned.

Great is the effectiveness of reading as a tool, for those who slowly learn

can trace again their steps when printed roads are still before them.

I would have them know completely regularity of reading-rate is not a final goal—that some ideas are swiftly read and others loitered over. And as for speed of reading and degree of comprehension, I will look for correlation and will find it somewhat high.

I must become adept with methods tried and also new, and understand the boys and girls and that which is perplexing. And I must strive to bolster up their weaknesses and have them work, not with mere letters or with isolated words, but with ideas expressed in crisp, intelligible fashion.

I must remember that if I can give to children understanding of this potent skill that they will relish reading, for surely one enjoys the doing of those acts which he does well.

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A Present-Day Look at the American School Curriculum

By GUY WAGNER

Iowa State Teachers College

PARENTS SEND their children to school so that they may learn.

Now the verb *learn* requires an object for one cannot learn without learning something. It may be how to spell "abracadabra;" or to spiral a football; or count to ten; or read aloud with good diction; or solve a difficult algebraic equation; or to reserve judgment until the facts are in; or appreciate our American heritage! *Whatever it is that a child learns under the guidance and direction of the school is "his" curriculum.* This learning may be negative, or merely innocuous, or highly important—it depends on the quality of the school.

There can be little doubt but that America today is deeply concerned about its schools—and the American curriculum. And certainly the curriculums of our schools are changing. Just as certainly, other marked changes are in the making.

In the second report to President Eisenhower of the President's Committee of Education Beyond the High School,¹ July 1957 the Committee states, "Revolutionary changes are occurring in American education of which even yet we are only dimly aware. This nation has been propelled into a challenging new educational era—by the convergence of powerful forces—an explosion of knowledge and population,

a burst of technological and economic advance, the outbreak of ideological conflict and the uprooting of old political and cultural patterns on a worldwide scale, and an unparalleled demand by Americans for more and better education."

The report goes on to say that "America would be heedless if she closed her eyes to the dramatic strides being taken by the Soviet Union in post-high school education, particularly in the development of scientists, engineers and technicians. She would be inexcusably blind if she failed to see that the challenge of the next twenty years will require leaders not only in science and engineering and in business and industry, but in government and politics, in foreign affairs and diplomacy, in education and civic affairs." Surely this same point of view has application to both our elementary and secondary schools.

Probably the most impelling sentence in this one hundred eight page report to the President is this, "World peace and the survival of mankind may well depend on the way we educate the citizens and leaders of tomorrow."

Perhaps it is because we have been temporarily out-Sputniked that the dramatic need for a fresh look at our school curriculums has been brought more sharply into focus. So we ask ourselves the question, "What should be

1. *Second Report to the President, The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School*, Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., July 1957, 55 cents.

our point of view in February of 1958 regarding our American school curriculum?" Here are four guidelines that may help direct our thinking on this matter.

Guideline No. 1. We need to recognize that our young people, each day, are experiencing three separate but closely interwoven curriculums: (1) the curriculum of the home, (2) the curriculum of the community, and (3) the curriculum of the schools.

Implications: Schools must note more clearly that the home and community experiences of their pupils are closely tied in with the school curriculum. For example, in a number of homes children and their parents carry on vigorous discussions concerning recent developments in the fields of technology, politics, and social issues. A striking example of this existed in the Joseph P. Kennedy family where Senator John Kennedy and his brother Robert Kennedy, counsel for the Senate Investigating Committee, report a daily round of discussion and debate on current issues when they were children. The obvious reinforcement of the school's curriculum in science and the social sciences from such a home is plain to see.

On the other hand, however, schools must recognize that the home and community experiences of certain children are bound to be meager and in some cases even negative in their effects. In many communities, for example, a majority of the children are brought up in an environment of inferior reading choices—the reading matter available may be either barren or take the form of comic books and degrading pulp magazines. Surely the school cannot overlook its responsibility for helping tackle this problem at its roots—as well as providing school experiences with fine literature which will help compen-

sate as best it can for the lack of constructive reading opportunities at home.

But trying to patch up the child's reading problems at school without alleviating the cause is pretty much a losing battle. It seems obvious, therefore, that the school should do whatever it can within reason to foster improvement of the out-of-school conditions which thwart the child's proper growth. For when the school curriculum conflicts with the curriculum of the home and community, the child instead of being lead forward is more likely to be a mere football kicked about by opposing teams. Perhaps we need to ask, "What can our home, communities, and schools do so that they provide our young people with those desirable experiences and attitudes which are supporting and strengthening rather than conflicting and negatory?" One good answer, I believe, lies in systematic action plans for closer working relationships between the home and the school. Thus we find schools today fostering such cooperative means as the parent-teacher conference, the home-room meeting, and the teacher-parent study group.

Guideline No. 2. Each Child is unique, having his own rate and pattern of development.

Implications: Effective curriculum planning recognizes the needs of the individual—it is not mass production resulting in lock-step learning. The school curriculum must therefore be sufficiently broad and flexible to take the differences of children into account. In doing so it must offer a wide variety of subjects and experiences.

Equally important we must recognize a wide range of acceptable standards of achievement. In other words, there is quite a bit of difference in the mileage covered by a scooter, an automobile and

a jet plane. Shall we apply the same standard of achievement to these three means of transportation? If we do, I am afraid that even the best scooter, working with maximum effort, will be doomed forever to failure. By the same token, a lazy inefficient jet plane may easily bask under the halo of "good work, you get an A." We need to do something that will take our hard-working, conscientious scooters out of the doghouse of academic *disrespectability* and give them credit for the types of work which they are by nature fitted to do. In turn, our jet planes must not be given full credit until they do their very best.

A striking example of this point of view is found as we look at a typical group of entering high school freshmen. Physically they vary greatly in height, weight, and bone structure. Some are far better coordinated than others, in fact, one youngster may be able to run nearly twice as fast as another in the same group. Some may be shy and fearful; others outgoing and self-assured; some read at college level and others not as well as the average fifth grader; some have a mathematical bent and might well have a stiff series of courses in algebra I, plane geometry, advanced algebra, solid geometry, trigonometry and some calculus before high school graduation. Others would be completely floored by these courses—instead they will profit by work in general mathematics at the ninth-grade level followed by consumer mathematics which relates chiefly to the arithmetic of everyday living.

Each of these teen-agers is a potential parent and needs some basic information and understanding regarding effective human relations and what makes a good home.

Some of these youngsters are poten-

tial engineers, scientists, teachers, lawyers, doctors, industrialists, business executives or technologists. Some need stiff doses of science courses which will at the same time help them fulfill their potentials as they will add to the leadership of America in this field which is currently being spotlighted for priority emphasis. But, as President Eisenhower emphasized in his second "confidence restoring" speech on November 13, that while a new emphasis must be placed in mathematics and science and the training of many more engineers and scientists, nevertheless we need a "people who will keep their heads, and, in every field, leaders who can meet intricate human problems with wisdom and courage: In short," said President Eisenhower, "we shall need not only Einsteins, but Washingtons and Emersons." And certainly we will need to continue an emphasis upon such fields as homemaking, music, and literature. For most of our girl graduates will make a far better contribution to our national welfare through their ability as homemakers than they will through an ability to solve intricate problems in mathematics.

Guideline No. 3. Curriculum planning is not merely the piling of the new on top of the old—thus an overloading of experiences impossible for the pupil to digest.

Implications: Instead of mere accretion of new subjects and new activities, curriculum planning requires continuous reorganization in which the new is skillfully blended with whatever of the old is important enough to retain. In other words, effective curriculum change usually demands curriculum reorganization.

There are two forces that bring about curriculum changes in our schools. One

is the professional knowledge of the faculty which causes new topics to be included, new subjects to be offered, and new reorganizations within the curriculum to be effected. As an example the topics of jet propulsion, atomic energy, and space travel are now a part of the course of high school physics. In recent years the subject of driver education has been added as a completely new course. In some of our elementary schools Spanish is now being taught. As examples of curriculum reorganization, health education is frequently combined with the science program and in most elementary schools history and geography have been brought together in a single offering called the social studies.

The second source of curriculum change comes from outside the school from what is known as pressure groups. And as William Carr, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, has said, "each of these groups is anxious to avoid overloading the curriculum. All any of them ask is that the non-essentials be dropped in order to get their subject in. Most of them insist they do not want a special course—they just want their ideas to permeate the entire daily program."²

It is the undoubted right of American citizens to thus try to have education fit the needs of society as they see it. As a result, however, schools are requested by certain groups to add more science and more mathematics. Bankers want more and better arithmetic; executives want stenographers to have more and better spelling; bird lovers want more and better bird study; and so on and on. And may I point out again that the

schools belong to the people and they have a right to recommend. We must recognize, however, that pressures from many quarters to add innumerable new things may make the school situation in connection with the curriculum rather chaotic. How to bring these pressures into some kind of orderly relationship to the process of school administration is obviously a complicated problem.

The important point is that there is a difference between advice and decision. And if our schools are to be reasonably efficient they must take the responsibility for decisions and the proper ordering of the curriculum. But time and reason both demand change. A sound curriculum can be achieved only as we continuously cull the less important, seek out and add the new things that ought to be taught, and blend the new with the old.

Guideline No. 4. The curriculum is both *what* we teach and *how* we teach.

Implications: For many years the curriculum was commonly thought of as subject matter content. It was the making of ovals and the push-pull exercises in penmanship; it was the list of spelling words allocated to each grade level; it was the information to be found in the adopted history and geography textbooks; it was the songs to be sung during music period; it was the rules to be memorized in language; and it was the poems to be learned and the stories to be read in the literature class.

We are more aware today that curriculum is *method* as well as *content*. For the *how* we teach greatly affects *what* children learn. It is possible, for instance, to use a recitation method of

2. Carr, William G., "New Forces in the Government of Public Schools," *Parents and the Schools*, 36th Yearbook of the National Elementary Principal's Association, 1957, p. 6.

teaching excellent science content so that the learner has little, if any, experience in thoughtful observation, careful experimentation, and scientific thinking. Thus the science lesson may take on only the character of another reading lesson with the purpose that of repeating to the teacher what has been memorized. And this is what is likely to happen if we quickly and intemperately add much more science to our school curriculums without adding correspondingly well-prepared science teachers. For teachers can hardly be expected to teach that which they do not know.

We know, too, that fine literature can be taught so that there is a resulting deep appreciation and a desire for good books. It can also be taught so that children may develop the feeling that they never want to see or hear the names of Longfellow, George Eliot, Lowell, and Whittier again.

History taught by the great teacher becomes an impelling force in a child's life—taught by the poorly prepared or disinterested teacher it may be dry as dust, with its characters and events unimportant and unreal.

If the curriculum is *how* we teach as well as *what* we teach then two facts stand out boldly: (1) A good teacher is as important as the curriculum itself—her worth can hardly be measured; and (2) The learning environment should be as stimulating and dynamic as our economy and our imagination can make it.

Give children a curriculum geared to their needs, an environment which stimulates an active search for knowledge, a teacher who knows *how* to teach, and you have the three essential ingredients of the good school.

Some Curriculum Trends

Up to this point I have not specifically pointed out what we might call "current accents" in the curriculum itself. In my opinion there is an acceleration of emphasis on the following in many of our nation's schools:

1. There is a trend toward developing programs for better guidance and counseling.

2. The past few years have found many schools planning programs for identifying and challenging the gifted.

3. The promotion of mental health as well as physical fitness *for all* is becoming more evident.

4. Because of its importance in all academic learning, reading is now considered a program twelve stories high—it is not completed at the close of the elementary school.

5. There is no diminution in the emphasis upon the worth and importance of the individual. Along with this, however, is a fresh emphasis upon the responsibility of the individual to society.

6. Many state and local school systems have produced instructional materials which reveal a strong emphasis upon moral and spiritual values.

7. There is a growing recognition that learning to be of consequence must be meaningful to the individual. As a result, we have currently a wider acceptance in the use of audio-visual education, which includes those experiences designed to make learning more realistic.

8. There is some progress in developing an attitude that academic learning is of tremendous consequences in today's world and thus the student who is a scholar (egghead) deserves the appreciation and approval of his peers.

This, however, is a tough nut to crack and faculty hopes precede achievement in this area by quite a distance.

9. While wide and rapid reading in subject matter fields is fostered, it is also recognized that intensive study of certain basic books is necessary for quality scholarship.

10. Many elementary schools are giving considerably more attention to simple, experimental science than was done in the past.

11. There has been a marked increase in the development of listening skills—including the kind of listening that recognizes propaganda and separates fact from opinion.

12. By such means as parent-teacher conferences and homeroom programs there has been a marked increase in home-school cooperation.

13. A number of school systems are experimenting with the primary block plan as opposed to specific grade levels so that individual children may move along more nearly at their own best rate. This organizational plan is designed to adjust the school curriculum better to the native learning rates of the individual.

14. Schools are recognizing that an increasing percentage of our young people are likely to go to college. For this reason there is a renewed concern about providing the academic backgrounds in science, mathematics, English, foreign languages, and the social sciences which are the bases for success in the typical college program.

15. There is quite a bit more action research in the local school systems, whereby teachers are freed within reasonable limits to try out any ideas which they and the administration believe may improve teaching. If in a given classroom a new idea clicks, the

information can then be channeled to other teachers in the system.

16. Especially in the fields of science, mathematics and social studies there is an increasing trend toward building the program around problem-solving situations.

17. Classrooms by and large are becoming more of the workshop type rather than the *re-citation* type. In other words, you will often note what appears to be a laboratory-type situation rather than pupils merely answering teachers' questions on what they have all read from the same textbook assignment.

18. Local school systems are providing such special services as help from speech therapists, remedial reading teachers, and school psychologists.

19. A number of school systems are considering the extension of the school year to ten or even eleven months. During the summer months the program, rather than being remedial for the unsuccessful student, will be an enriching type that will offer opportunities for all levels of learning ability.

20. There is a continuance of interest in cooperative work experiences whereby students, toward the close of their high school career, will be apprenticed for part-time experiences in local businesses and industries.

21. Local school systems are developing an increasing number of bulletins, resource units, and other curriculum materials for use by the teachers of that system.

22. There is a tendency toward more and better evaluation of the work done by the schools. State departments and local school systems both are concerned with the question "What results are we getting?" This, of course, will increasingly demand the use of careful research on the local level—and many city and

county school systems are likely to include on their staff a research specialist.

23. Although condemned by some who feel the importance of more intensive academic education, there is little likelihood that the somewhat newer emphases such as driver education, homemaking education, instrumental music, and a wide range of physical education activities will be withdrawn from our schools.

24. Emphasis is increasing for developing creativity in many phases of the curriculum, especially in the fields of speech and creative writing.

25. An organization of teaching around the unit plan which capitalizes on a variety of learning experiences including individual and group projects pertinent to the central problem of the unit.

26. There is a growing use of such means of communication as the interview, written correspondence, radio, and television.

27. Students are given more opportunities for actual practice in self-government—this includes the use of student councils at both the elementary and secondary school levels.

28. There is an increasing use of community resources including resource people who are able to give specialized help in certain areas.

29. There is a strong emphasis upon intercultural education and better human relations.

30. Administrators and teachers are

deliberately and systematically planning ways in which pupils may be of greater service to the school. This is an effort to develop civic responsibility and a feeling on the part of the pupil that he is important to the success and welfare of the total school program.

In Conclusion

It is important that all curriculum planning be based upon a fact-finding attitude. For while we may find fault with our schools, it is essential that the fault finding be preceded by fact finding. Alice was quite right when she told the King of Hearts that it was nonsense to consider the verdict before considering the evidence.

Perhaps we also need to recall Herbert Spencer's classic question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" In so doing we cannot help but take a good, square look at our present curriculum to see how it is meeting the needs of our children and our society. We will then note the things that are not important enough to retain and become aware of that which should be added. And we will consider how this emerging curriculum can be organized for maximum effectiveness.

Finally, we will recognize that the ultimate judgment of the curriculum lies in the successes of the children and youth it is meant to serve. For it is only as we look at our children that we have a defensible measure of the curriculum which is being provided by our homes, our community, and our schools.

Current Doctrine of Interest Questioned

By GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS

Editor of Highlights for Children

Honesdale, Pennsylvania

"POOR PAPA, he had four children and never a college graduate among them." So said the grown daughter of a college professor, who had brought up his children in extreme permissiveness.

The foregoing was recently related in a paper read by Dr. Dale B. Harris, Director of the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota, and related in part in the winter issue of *Child Study*.

Dr. Harris said the Institute's records show I. Q.'s in excess of 130 for all these four children. It was in a preliminary report of a study of progress, of 200 children of preschool groups at the Institute, 1925-30.

To quote from Dr. Harris: "This is one example in a series of cases of very easy-going, permissive childhood followed in adult life by a lack of vocational and personal focus. These adults aren't seriously unhappy, quarrelsome, difficult or completely unsuccessful. But we get an impressive picture of people who are drifting, not living up to their early promise, not markedly dissatisfied, yet neither contented with present achievement nor able to say they find pride and satisfaction of attainment."

Part and parcel of excessive permissiveness is the widely accepted doctrine of interest. According to it, parents and teacher are supposed to make everything they want the child to do so attractive he

will choose to do it with all necessary effort. Don't bother about effort, just work on interest. Effort will then come automatically as a result of interest. At home, don't require the child to do chores or anything else he doesn't feel like doing. Strive to make what he might not want to do there, so attractive he just can't keep himself from doing it.

Many a parent writes me to know why she has failed to make jobs about the house so appealing to the child of ten, say, that he will do them cheerfully and eagerly. I ask her why she was so foolish and impractical as to suppose she could make all chores attractive nearly all the time. I added, "Wonderful when you can make these jobs attractive, but don't wear yourself out only to be disillusioned later. Require your child to do a certain number of jobs regularly and reasonably well. See that he can no more escape doing them than breathing. Then aim, of course, to help this child find these jobs growing less and less distasteful. Hope that by and by he might find the doing of some or all such jobs even growing gradually satisfying.

Take the case of home music practice. Even with average or superior music talent, not many children have practiced faithfully because they really liked to do it. The practicing child, finding effectively that his having to practice is inevitable, that he can't possibly escape it, in case the enforcement were

decisive and not an orgy of emotional warfare, gains some music skills and wins some successes. These arouse more interest in him and consequent effort. This principle applies to the child set to learn by heart, at home or at school the spelling of a few words or a few basic number combinations he may have to use all his life. Effectively requiring him to do them now means some initial success resulting in some satisfaction (interest) and in turn more effort.

For almost any child to learn to work hard at physical or mental jobs, he may need to be required to make the first few hurdles before he can achieve

enough success to sustain his interest and consequent effort in order to go on. With strong successes from these early hurdles, he may have gained enough interest and resulting efforts to keep on striving more or less indefinitely. But as it actually happens, he may need some prodding by requirements at various stages later.

Nothing is the matter with the doctrine that interest can and will arouse effort. The fallacy comes when we expect all effort to be started or restored and sustained by interest and that no effort should be required. We all agree that effort is essential to achievement.

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The Teacher's Public Relations

By W. W. LUDEMAN

President, Southern State Teachers College
Springfield, South Dakota

STRONG PUBLIC relations are vital to the success of every business in this modern day. From the beginning people have employed avenues to reach the public. Today it has become an integral part of selling whether it's a business, an industry, a professional person, a minister, or a farmer. Good public relations determine the real potential. Teachers have come to realize that they too must look to their publics in the total business of education.

Public Relations Defined

Public relations include all that is done by a person or organization or firm to sell itself to those it serves. Hence all that is said or written, all successes, all devices—make up what is commonly called public relations. Big firms, colleges, and large industries have come to appreciate the value of special services of this nature so they have hired specialists to direct public relations. It certainly must pay dividends.

The Teacher's Publics How to Reach Them

The teacher should sell his product and himself to those he serves. It should be done on an organized basis with planned and directed activities. The really successful teacher will be giving proper attention to the following publics in the following ways:

(1) *The Pupil Public.* This is the teacher's most important public. The

pupils must be sold on the teacher or nothing happens. And these pupil public relations are no accident. They are planned.

Reaching the Pupil Public. The top teacher reaches his pupil public by good teaching, careful preparation, fair evaluation, interesting extra class activities, sensible praise for pupil successes.

(2) *The Parent—Public.* Mostly when the pupils are reached the parents too are reached. But some planned effort is required to be certain of holding parents in good trust for highest school-home relationships.

Reaching Parent Public. The most successful teachers are bringing parents into the educational corporation by means of: home visitation, parent nights at school, the P.T.A., general letters to mothers on pupil welfare, getting parents to help with school drives, and making costumes for school programs, school picnics, and a host of others. Building the parent public guarantees adequate school backing.

(3) *The Patron—Tax Payer Public.* This public should not be disregarded by the thorough teacher. Tax payers and patrons must be sold on the value of schools. The U. S. Chamber of Commerce publication—"Education—An Investment in People"—is one of the finest efforts along this line.

Reaching the Patron—Tax Payer Public. The teacher singly or in company with organized groups in a city system must make a planned campaign in

public relations so that all tax payers and patrons are fully sold on the school program and are willing to pay the bill willingly. This is done by public statements of school costs if properly analyzed, by open house at the school, by public school programs, by published reports on school activities, by published reports on school achievement, by reports on successes of former pupils. All these and more are fine P. R. builders.

(4) *The Professional Public.* No teacher can disregard his own profession. He is a part of it. To be recognized as an integral member of this group every teacher must sell himself to it. Too many fail to make this effort.

Reaching the Professional Public. The best known teachers use well directed activities to tie themselves to their professional group which include membership in the professional organization, writing articles for teacher magazines, attending conventions and conferences, visiting other teachers and schools and building professional contacts.

(5) *The School Board Public.* Boards make policies and set salary schedules for the operation of the public school. Board members and boards are highly important. Adequate attention should be given to them. To disregard them would be dangerous to the welfare of the teacher and also the school.

Reaching the School Board Public. An alert teacher builds these relations carefully. He does it by reporting to the board through the superintendent, by

having board members visit the school, by asking for board counsel on items of school policy through supervisors, by having a few social events for board members and their wives, by teacher board dinners. There could be danger of over playing these relations—but sensibly handled they are basic to general school success.

(6) *The Supervisory Public.* Teachers work under supervisors in the present day school. This is a vital public for the teacher. It should have proper attention. Teacher-supervisor relations can be closely knit and hence add strongly to total educational efficiency.

Reaching the Supervisory Public. This is accomplished by alert teachers who turn in required reports to supervisors promptly on time and in complete order, who consult the supervisor on important problems, who work closely with their superiors on research projects for improving the educational pattern.

Conclusion

The teacher's public relations are increasingly more important to total success. The outstanding teacher is giving careful attention to his pupil public, his parent public, the patron-tax payer public, professional public, the school board public, and the supervisory public. Reaching these publics is not accomplished without effort. It requires organized and thorough planning at all times. Added successes and accomplishments in the education of children make it worth while.

When Will *the* T. Q. (Teacher Quotient) Era Be Here?

By WALTER B. BARBE

University of Chattanooga

IN THIS DAY of standardized tests, which yield quotients of intelligence, and achievement, it seems as though the profession is in need of a test to measure teaching quotient. This must not be any ordinary test, for the concept is entirely new. There will be no question of validity, for there is no criterion against which the test can be measured. In future generations, T.Q. tests will be declared to be valid because they have a high positive correlation with the T.Q. test developed back in 1957.

How nice it will be for the author of this test to be singled out as the one who devised T.Q. tests. Of course, there will be people who will write articles to show that the sample was not large enough, or that it was not representative of the teaching population as a whole. But since there is nothing with which to compare the test, the test will undoubtedly withstand the attacks of the critics.

Other such tests will undoubtedly appear, claiming to rule out cultural factors and the like. But the T.Q. will stand, if for no other reason than, as Saint Exupery says in *The Little Prince*, "adults love figures." Teachers will undoubtedly swell with pride when they are asked, "What is your T.Q.?" Miss Jone's T.Q. is 118 and Mrs. Smith's is 119, so there can be little question as to which is the better teacher.

Parents will vie one with another to have their children placed in the classroom with the teacher who has the

highest T.Q. But those parents whose children do not get into the room of the teacher with the highest T.Q. will undoubtedly say, "She may have a high T.Q., but have you seen the way she dresses? I just hope that my child has an average T.Q." (When parents speak of "average" they mean better than any of their associates but perhaps average in a group of geniuses.)

There will be the story of one teacher who used to be in this school who had a T.Q. of 219; the highest one on record. She began teaching when she was only 7 years old. "I don't remember just who she was, but I hear that she is in a mental institution somewhere. No, I don't know who told me. It seems that maybe I read it some place. Poor thing. But 'early ripe, early rot' I always say."

Do T.Q.'s Change?

The battle will rage on. For every isolated case of a big change in T.Q., another case will be cited who was tested after a period of fifty years and had only a one point change in T.Q. Such statements will be made as, "One out of seven T.Q.'s will change from 5 to 18 points if the period between testing is over 13 years." Everyone will henceforth quote this study as an example of fine research. It will always be quoted exactly, for to paraphrase may change the implied meaning. Authors will be careful not to attempt an interpretation of these findings, for just what they mean is not exactly clear. But the study

is such a good example of the exactness of the social sciences that to argue with it would certainly be in bad taste.

Perhaps the final decision will be to state that T.Q.'s are relatively constant if the tests are given under standardized conditions. Of course, individual test results are always more reliable than group tests. And the scores around the average are more reliable than those at the extremes.

Heredity vs. Environment

The nature-nurture battle is also on. Many people claim that heredity determines T.Q., while others claim that T.Q. is determined solely by environment. Exactly under which category education courses come is not clear. Articles will appear on the relative influence of education courses; not on T.Q., for that is much too direct, or heredity and environment which in turn affects T.Q. somehow. Then there will be that school of thought which will suddenly appear which believes that both heredity and environment affect T.Q. Seeking to please both the hereditarians and the environmentalists, the new group cannot understand why neither of the old schools like them. Actually this is about the only point on which both old schools agree—this new middle-of-the-road policy concerning T.Q. is nothing but pure "bunk."

Teaching Quotient Ranges

In order that T.Q.'s will have meaning, a simple scale has been devised to determine into which category each teacher should be placed. Categorization, so long practiced on the pupils, has now come of age and is also applied to those of us who are teachers. The following ranges are suggested for use by parents interested in the teachers in their schools:

130 and over — Too smart, beware of this type.

- | | |
|----------|---|
| 110-130 | — Depends upon your previous experience with this type whether or not you will like them. |
| 90-110 | — This is the safe ground. No danger of this group thinking. |
| 70-90 | — To be used only during times of teacher shortage. |
| Below 70 | — You'd be surprised how good these may actually be. |

Of course, there will be exceptions to these rules. Parents must remember that the principle of individual differences is always important. They must consider the "whole teacher" and not just a T.Q. score.

Use of T.Q. in Hiring Teachers

Superintendents are to be encouraged to use the T.Q. as one basis for hiring new teachers. Recognizing, of course, the limitations of any such measure, it can nevertheless be of great value to the superintendent who must face a group of prospective teachers. This is assuming, of course, that the day will come when superintendents will want to select from a group of applicants, rather than hire the entire group.

There can be little doubt that the T.Q. will come into greater and greater use. Undoubtedly it will replace that age old practice of superintendents'— hiring the blond with the big blue eyes.

Summary

Teaching Quotients are coming. They will be as much a part of our every day thinking as are I.Q.'s. Perhaps the best things we can say about this new idea of T.Q.'s is "Parents love it, and it really doesn't hurt the kids too much."

Mental Hygiene *and* the Teacher

By JOHN J. EVOY

Chairman, Department of Psychology
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MRS. JELLYBY is a memorable character in Charles Dicken's *Bleak House*. Mrs. Jellyby was a dedicated woman. Her one consuming concern in life was the underprivileged, neglected children throughout the world and particularly those in far distant missionary lands. Meanwhile, she remained incredibly and blithely unaware of the needs of the most neglected and underprivileged children of her actual acquaintance—her own.

There seems to have been something suspiciously similar to this in the concern of the teachers of this country have had for mental illness. For some years the men and women who comprise our teaching profession have been keenly aware of both the gravity and prevalence of mental disturbance. But, until recent times one could readily infer from the remarks of many teachers that such psychological disorders were somehow quite remote from their own classrooms. The mentally ill, they felt, were persons considerably older than their students, or at any rate, if indeed these ills were to be found in younger persons, such youngsters were in some unexplained way kept well segregated from the regular students in the elementary and secondary schools.

Today that picture has changed. Almost all teachers, at least in this country, subscribe quite wholeheartedly not only to the existence of mental illness in the early years but also to the likelihood that some of those who will later

on manifest even the most serious emotional and mental disturbance are at present numbered among the students attending their own schools. This recognition by the teaching profession of the proximity of mental illness is a noteworthy advance, for one does not cope with even a serious problem which is still felt to exist in the far reaches of the elsewhere.

The First Step

Yet it would be a grave mistake to conclude that in as much as the problem of psychological illness has been sighted it has been solved. This is far from the truth. More than one sincere person has slipped into the easy error of the young man who climbed the tree after the wildcat under the mistaken impression that once he managed to get his hands on the animal that ended the matter of catching a wildcat. The recognition that in our elementary and high schools there are children who are subject to at least the initial stages of mental disturbances is a step ahead, but it is only a step. It is a prerequisite to a solution of this social and psychological problem. It would be presumptuous to think of it as anything more than that.

In the public and private schools of this nation there are mentally sick children. There is the fact. What is to be done about it? To be still more specific, what is the teacher to do about it? Ask some of the teachers you know. You can anticipate a certain quantum of con-

fusion and sincere bewilderment in their replies. How are they to steer the precarious courses between the Scylla of doing nothing about the mental disturbances of their children and the Charybdis of conducting themselves in such a manner as to be suspect of playing the psychiatrist?

This article hopes to shed a bit of clarification on the one point of what the teacher can do about the mental hygiene of his own students.

Mental Hygiene

The previous sentence, you will note, employed the term, "Mental Hygiene" rather than "Mental Illness." Mental Hygiene is the more comprehensive expression. It subsumes mental illness. It spans the entire continuum of mental health and illness. For just as the medical field does not concern itself exclusively with physical illness but attends also to the protection and promotion of physical health, so mental hygiene embraces the whole gamut of mental illness and health. The first clarification then of this article is that the teacher's concern should not be what he can do about mental illness but rather about the mental hygiene of his students.

The Home

Before proceeding to examine specifically what he can do about his own students' mental hygiene, a caution seems timely lest the teacher set his sights unrealistically high. He cannot entirely counteract the impact of a deleterious home atmosphere. A parent-child relationship that has been hurtful to the child cannot be wholly undone by him. Neither can a gravely deficient home be adequately compensated for in the class room. Moreover, to look for quite immediate and visible changes

for the better in his students is to court both disappointment and unwarranted discouragement, for the really important changes of this nature are often neither immediate nor visible.

Teacher Role

An evaluation of the teacher's potential for mental hygiene should rightly begin with a concise description of his proper role in the teacher-student relationship. What is that role in reference to his students? It is an enviable one. Given almost daily contact with these students over a period of time, he has the opportunity to observe and study them in such social situations as those of the classroom, the number of more or less organized play groups and the casual informal contacts of the lunch room, the corridors, etc. He can observe the behavior of any given student in a quite dispassionate way. In the eyes of the students he is their superior and hence can become something of a model and a living norm of values for them. Lastly, the teacher is first and foremost just that, namely a teacher. Hence, his first obligation is to all the students, rather than to any one.

Consequently any help given to a student must be within the framework of the teacher-student relationship. The maintenance of proper class discipline is never to be sacrificed to the good of an individual student, nor is any other attention to the need of a single person to be allowed to jeopardize the welfare of the class. Whatever, then the teacher can do for the mental hygiene of his students must not conflict with his prior obligation to the class.

Observations

Mental hygiene envelopes so extensive a portion of human experience,

that any serious endeavor to reckon with it demands that it be divided into workable parts. Whatever norms for such divisions others may find helpful, the teacher knows but one. That is the one with which he deals daily, namely students behavior. On the basis of their behavior, students fall roughly into three groups. It will be helpful to the teacher to attend to each one of these three groups separately.

The first group is composed of those students who impress the teacher as notably different from the great majority of students. Every teacher notices such children.

There is a second group who appear to the teacher to experience some lesser difficulty in adjusting in their interpersonal relationships.

The third group is made up of the remainder of the youngsters whose social adjustments presents no particular problem. What is a teacher to do in regard to the first group, the group of markedly different individuals? To begin with, he is to know what to look for; to be on the alert for certain behavior patterns in the persons comprising this first group.

Patterns of Needs

Following are a number of these patterns. He will be particularly vigilant in relation to the student who experiences prolonged or extreme depressions or elations, or one who displays sudden outbursts of fury and destructive overactivity, or one who shows persistent hostility toward the others, or one who tells of experiences or expresses judgments either or both of which are strikingly bizarre or incongruous, or, one who is characterized by shyness, desiring to be alone to the point of active avoidance of family and friends, or, who sits or

stands long periods of the time preoccupied in daydreaming to such an extent that he becomes largely oblivious to the things happening to him.

Should the teacher discover any of these patterns he is to recognize that they could well be symptomatic of some of the more serious mental or emotional disorders. Consequently, by virtue of his teacher-training he has not the competency to undertake psychotherapy with these individuals. He is rather to refer them promptly to the proper persons. Should this teacher's school system have trained persons for such cases he should contact them and explain what he has observed in this student. Otherwise, he is to get in touch with the parents of the student. It may be necessary for him to explain to the parents that the earlier such behavior is brought to the attention of the proper persons, the sooner the youngster can be helped, should he prove to have a serious disturbance. Frequently, the "stitch in time" approach is that best calculated to motivate the family. Such action on the part of the teacher can save a person years of torment, not to mention the suffering spared the person's family.

The second group includes those students who experience some smaller difficulty in adjusting socially. This group contains a number of different types of behavior. Following are some of the more commonly occurring ones. There is little George. George is a difficult child both in and out of the classrooms. The teacher may not suspect that George feels that his parents don't want him and have never really loved him. Right or wrong, that is the way it looks to him. What the teacher encounters in George is a student to whom it is impossible to get close; one who seems to trust neither teacher nor fellow student.

Moreover, George appears to resent his dependency on the teacher. What is the teacher to do? To attempt to motivate George in his studies and other undertakings on the score of personal loyalty to his teacher is doomed to failure. The teacher may help George, however, if he accepts George on the basis of a very impersonal, strictly one-sided, relationship. He will benefit George if he can renounce any real hope of getting anything from George on the grounds of personal allegiance. Instead, he will present to this pupil such important values as the subject matter he is teaching warrants, and he will remain content to play in this life drama of George the objective role of a human catalyst. His only hope is that George will accept his teacher's scale of values for his own, not on the grounds of any personal consideration but rather on that of the perceived excellence of these values. This is the climate in which George can grow in mental health.

Then there is Mary Lou. She has never doubted that her parents loved and wanted her. However, it has become increasingly clearer to her that at least one of her parents wants and loves her not primarily for herself, but rather because she is in the position to fulfill a long-frustrated parental ambition. Mary's mother has always felt that she married below her station in life. Now she is going to correct that. Mary has come to understand that she is to associate only with young men who belong to the "best families". Her mother never had a big church wedding. She is going to have it now in Mary's wedding, etc. Mary has been reared in something of an ultrapermissive atmosphere, for the more initiative and spunk she showed the better she promised to fulfill the blocked maternal desire. Again the

teacher knows nothing of all this. He does know that he is dealing with a child who seems precociously cynical. Each time he befriends and accepts Mary she looks at him quiscally as if to ask, "What's your angle?" He knows that Mary's conduct is so often "out of bounds". She is being that which she has been brought up to be, a privileged person. He can help Mary Lou. But to do so he must accept her for herself and renounce any hope of appreciation from Mary for such acceptance. Painstakingly he must make clear to her the proper boundaries of socially and personally acceptable conduct. He must school her in the meaning and value of authority, so that she learns both the limits of socially approved behavior and the reason for such limitations. If he can do this and keep it all within the framework of the unconditional acceptance of Mary Lou as a person, regardless of her achievement, he will help her greatly, though she may show little effect of such treatment now.

Then there is the child who has been overprotected. He has lived an ivory-tower-type of existence. He has not been hurt frequently simply because he did not have the opportunity. His parents constantly placed a protective wall about him. But here in the school situation that protection is wanting. The child is inexperienced in fending for himself. The teacher recognizing this, may be able to provide some protection and gradually diminish it so that this youngster will come little by little to be able to handle himself in the skills of adjusting to other persons.

The youngster whose parents have overdominated him, feels like a little child when it comes to making decisions of almost any kind for himself. Frequently she will cling to the teacher

with extreme volitional dependence. To throw her suddenly on her own initiative would panic her. Still, the teacher should realize that to continue to permit such servile dependency would mean to perpetuate in this young person this characteristic of immaturity and so hurt her severely. The teacher's course here is to detach the child progressively from such extreme dependency, all the while furnishing the support necessary for her to become increasingly self-reliant.

One last type of youngster should be mentioned. The child who feels that as far as getting any recognition for achievement from his parents is concerned, he "can't win". Appreciation is not forthcoming no matter what he does, so why should he try? A teacher can often keep this youngster from giving in completely to discouragement by making a point of expressing recognition and proper commendation to this child whenever possible.

As for the third group which is composed of the rest of the children who present no particular problem of adjusting socially, the teacher will best promote their mental health by taking a highly personal interest in each of these students. There is no substitute for this personal interest. He will not so much teach each student the moral and intellectual virtues as he will live them. That personal acceptance of the student by a teacher whom the student can look up to in every important sense is the single most important factor, I believe, making for mental health of the student in our schools today.

Conclusion

Finally, if even one teacher by reason of having persevered through the present article feels that he now has a clearer conception of what he can do about the mental hygiene of his own students, these lines have been well worth writing.

SOME CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Reviewed by PAUL ZANKOWICH, Teacher

East Meadow, N. Y., Public Schools

How THE GRINCH STOLE CHRISTMAS. By Dr. Scuss. N. Y. Random House. 1957. \$2.50.

The inimitable Dr. Scuss has done it again! Here is another of his utterly fantastic whimsies that young children just love. That awful Grinch thought he would ruin Christmas but he soon learns better and really enjoys the festival.—Paul Zankowich

THE BIG ONES. Story and Pictures by Inez Hogan. N. Y. E. P. Dutton. 1957. \$2.95.

A pert, young Chimpanzee met an enormous monster one day and it turned out to be a Dinosaur suddenly come back to earth. The accommodating Dinosaur suggests a guided tour of the animal kingdom. The Chimpanzee agrees and as each animal is pointed out the Dinosaur recalls some animal

that lived in past ages. A nice introduction to the animals of the past for very young children.—Paul Zankowich

ROCKET TO LIMBO. By Alan E. Nourse. N. Y. McKay. 1957. \$3.00.

This is a fantastic tale of outer space and one that will captivate imaginative boys and girls. Lars Heldrigssen, a young planetary ecologist, is assigned to the Star Ship *Gannymede* on a routine run to a known star system, Vega. Once on board, he finds that his bunkmate, Peter, is an old and unpleasant school acquaintance and that the ship is bound for a distant star, Wolf. Peter attempts to rouse the crew into mutiny. How the nascent mutiny is quelled, how landfall on the unknown planet is accomplished, and the part Lars plays in the whole affair is interesting reading.—Paul Zankowich

Insight Into Effective Study

By JAMES D. HOFFMAN

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Developing Better Study Habits

THE WRITER has been observing his two daughters quite closely lately, ages two and four. After observing all of the facets of their development, he has come to the conclusion that every normal human being does have, developed within themselves, an effective method of learning. This becomes obvious when you consider the tremendous efforts of concentration, intellectual activity, and energy involved in the original process of children learning to communicate. This learning how to talk, it was noticed, was unaccompanied by study periods, adult intervention, course structure, guidance, or a neat and classified set of rules or formula devised by the writer.

The learning to communicate is an unhurried, unpressed trial and error process, and it is, you must agree, completely forthcoming from the learner.

Knowing this, the writer cannot conscientiously and honestly give you in this article what you are asking for if you interpret the topic title to mean surefire techniques of study. The point will be made that those who consider study as an end in an educative experience have affected a national attitude towards study which is false and harmful.

The skills and processes of study cannot be isolated as a separate study or topic. Basically, study is the process of the mind becoming active during an experience, comprehending the experience, and finally forming associations with past experiences so that a body of

useful knowledge, or a change of behavior, evolves as the product of the entire experience.

The use of the word experience here means any particular daily activity engaged in by a learner—something from a book, a minute of living, a conducted lesson, or any other kind of activity generally found in a school, or life itself.

Study is not a set of physical conditions exclusively—that of light coming over the left shoulder, the radio or television off, being isolated and being surrounded by quiet. It is not a set of exclusive intellectual experiences—that of having the right book at the time of motivation—nor is it an isolated set of emotional experiences, like that of having the “self” under complete emotional control; rather it is a combination of all of these factors.

Study must have original purpose, containing stimulation and having the possibility of eventual evaluation of success. After everything is over, the child must be able to see that something has evolved from the efforts.

If we accept the fact that there are variances in human individuals, and this is commonly accepted, then we must also accept the fact that there would be differences in individual approaches to study. All students are not expected to be exactly 4 feet tall when entering the fourth grade—no students will evolve identical study habits. Knowing this, it is ridiculous to assume that there is any pat formula for study.

If there is no pat formula for study,

what is the responsibility of the teacher then in helping the student evolve a method of study, or, a method of completely consuming an experience for all that it is worth?

As they are easiest to comprehend and attack, let's take the physical factors first. It is true that we should give consideration to physical conditions of study. It's a cinch that there are physical barriers to concentration. The teacher should help the student realize these barriers and take them into consideration when undertaking a study. Physical factors will vary, however, as will all factors, with the individual, and it will be the responsibility of the teacher to help the student identify these barriers of concentration—sometimes found in the home, and sometimes in physiological condition of the learner. The teacher must help.

Physical barriers are not, however, the main things to emphasize, and yet quite often teachers emphasize these and nothing more.

Another responsibility of the teacher is to look at a youngster through the processes of daily observation and test analyzation, and, noticing his developmental level, make sure that any experience the student has moves him towards maturity in thought, action, purpose and decision—on that level. If the student fails to profit from the experience the teacher's role is to find where the educative process has broken down.

One common area of breakdown is because the child sees no need for the experience, it being teacher sponsored and having no initial need or purpose evident to the child. It is the responsibility of the teacher here, then, to try and take the child into active consideration of the experience—attempts

should be made, through processes of teacher-pupil planning, to let the child partake in the planning of his own experiences. This can, create, or stem from, interest, and will sometimes solve the problem of study by itself.

Another area of breakdown in the educative process, and thusly a barrier to effective study, is that of intellectual distraction, or block, or emotional disturbance. The child is not emotionally "tuned" to the experience underway. This is least easily identified by the teacher—in fact, for psychologists. But it is there, and it usually manifests itself in a display of disorganization. The teacher, either ignoring it or not recognizing it, will blame physical distractions—by saying, "You didn't copy down the assignment Joe," or "Tom, you're not trying." These statements can have more negative effects on the process, or method of study, than positive effects, if the barrier to effective study is an emotional disturbance—such as insecurity, neuroses, even psychosis, and innumerable complexes, such as inferiority.

So the point being made is that effective study is not to be taught, but it is to be learned. It is not an imposed thing, coming from outside the learner, but must come from the inside—stemming from the desires of the learner. The role of the teacher in this process is not to impose an experience, but to help the student choose an experience, not to blame, but to recognize social, physical, or emotional factors hindering the experience, not to autocratically give but to assist in interpretation and evaluation and to suggest areas of improvement. This imposes upon the teacher the full responsibility for understanding all of the factors involved in formulation of study habits.

The answer is not to give more rules to the children, but for the teacher to democratically show the student meaning in what he is doing—help him define his approach; and help him evaluate his experience after he has had it. If you want specifics, and there is a time for specifics, it is now; it would help the student to suggest possible approaches to study—the brief skim, then the more concentrated effort, the reading aloud, the taking of notes, outlining; methods you use yourself, or have seen others use, methods which were successful. But this should only be done if the student cannot evolve his own method of study and approach to an experience.

The philosophy expressed here would best be suited for the elementary school. The elementary school should be constantly concerned with evaluation of the growth of the whole child. Included within the whole child concept, or Gestalt, is the method of approach to problem solving by the child which the writer has briefly outlined. If there is a weakness in teaching effective study habits in the elementary school it would be in the area of helping the child to understand what he has learned and what processes he has used to effect that learning. It is restated that the best way to pursue a successful process of study and to evaluate the successes of the process lies in the realm of the democratic, teacher-pupil planned, student-centered, developmental approach to the curriculum.

Such an approach softens the way for the teacher in high school, people responsible for teaching specific and specialized bodies of knowledge, such as algebra, shop, geometry, or foreign languages. Elementary teachers must feel that they have a definite responsibility in contributing to the work of

these people who have the child later in life. Effective consideration of the factors influencing study, with an approach of evaluation and introspection resulting from that consideration, will enable the child to attain the special skills of communication and computation upon which specialized education is built. With these skills, and the understanding of the role and concept of self, and with an increased body of generalized concepts concerning society in general, the child will have a foundation for special education as it is offered in high school and college, and life outside of school, and then these specialized experiences become more meaningful to the learner and thus it becomes an easy task to motivate study.

If you consider it impossible to consider the factors mentioned in the article which influence effective study—physical conditions, motivations, emotion, ability levels, etc., and you still want to hard-headedly hammer at the students to study, study, study, meaningless and baseless subject matter, it is asked that you reconsider the opening two paragraphs:

Every normal human being does have, developed within themselves, an effective method of learning. This is obvious when you consider the tremendous concentration, intellectual activity, interest, need and energy involved in the original process of children learning to communicate, or talk, unaccompanied by study periods, adult intervention, course structure, guidance, or rules and regulations.

The learning to communicate, or any learning meaningful to the learner, is an unhurried, unpressed trial and error process, and it is, you must agree, completely forthcoming from the learner.

Some Thoughts About Children Who Have Problems

By CHARLES E. SKINNER

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ALL CHILDREN, whether typical or exceptional, develop problems at some time or other that are primarily emotional in character or which have strong emotional overtones. If a child has a physical deformity, disfigurement or other physical handicap, he may develop feelings of inferiority, inadequacy, self-pity, or rejection. If he fails repeatedly in his school work, he may turn to delinquency where he can be a "big shot." If nagging or harsh treatment is administered repeatedly, the child may develop nervous symptoms or anti-social behavior. These few simple illustrations emphasize that children have basic needs that will find expression in emotionally unhealthy or anti-social ways if they are not satisfied in a healthy and socially approved manner.

One of the major tasks of parents and teachers is to provide for each child the kind of security-giving experiences that will prevent personality maladjustments and conduct disorders on the one hand or improve the child's behavior on the other, if unhealthy habits, attitudes, interests or emotions are manifest. Most of the "problems" can be prevented when the basic principles of educational psychology and mental hygiene are applied by parent and teacher in child care, guidance and learning situations. Through love, acceptance, understanding and proper guidance, most of the maladjustments and conduct disorders can be improved, lessened in severity,

shortened in duration, or altogether conquered.

What guidance can parents and teachers give? A study of the better books in the fields of mental hygiene, educational psychology, child development, and child guidance can be helpful to any conscientious parent or teacher who has the "will" to use what is learned.

1. Each and every child should be treated as a personality, not as a gifted, cripple, blind, deaf, emotionally disturbed, behavior problem, delinquent or speech disorder case.

2. Exceptional children tend to make the best possible adjustment to social living when there is a minimum of isolation from other children. Special treatment there must be in many cases, but it seems justifiable only to the extent that this will contribute to a richer and more complete personality.

3. Children, whether gifted, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped or just plain typical, need the stimulating influence of success in their learning experiences. By adapting the curriculum to individual needs, capacities, and abilities, children will be able to learn more readily and with greater satisfaction. If the gifted child is not challenged by the learning situation, he may become bored, discouraged, or occasionally, anti-social in his behavior. If the mentally retarded child finds the material meaningless or too difficult, he may become discouraged or a failure.

4. It is important that physically handicapped children learn to accept the handicap, live with it, and make the best of it. When parents and teachers handle children wisely, the handicap is more readily accepted by the child. Then, too, the assets—intelligence, aptitudes, abilities and interests possessed by the individual should be capitalized on. If this is done wisely, the individual will have little time or inclination for self-pity or feelings of inadequacy and inferiority.

5. Respect for the child as a person and proper teacher-pupil relationships are as important as the curriculum. A respect for personality can best be shown by accepting the child as he is, giving him a chance to express himself, listening to him when he speaks, admiring his accomplishments, and treating him as an equal. If these things are done in home and school, the child will build a healthy self-respect and also his attitude toward others and his outlook on life will be wholesome. Uniqueness, then, is something to be respected, taken for granted.

The self-respect of the child is to be guarded at all times. This basic principle means that parents and teachers cannot expect all children to attain the same standards of excellence in all subjects and activities. *What is important, is that each child make progress that is in line with his own potential.* Standard test norms do not indicate what should be expected of any given child.

6. Children make the best adjustments to school and home life when they live and work in a friendly, social, democratic and reasonably permissive climate. In a research study, it was found that children developed many more neurotic reactions in an authoritarian climate than what a comparable

group developed in a democratic and friendly climate.

7. Parents and teachers need to realize that all behavior of whatever nature is caused. Therefore, one effective way to help the socially and emotionally maladjusted is to get at the causes. When causes are eliminated or eradicated, an improvement in behavior is generally noted. Sometimes the attitude of the child can be changed so that he no longer responds in the same way to the provocative situation.

8. Parental and teacher attitudes are highly potent for the development of behavior. One study showed that it took only two to three months for a neurotic, nagging, fault finding, harsh teacher to "infect" the entire class. Fortunately, neurotic reactions in children if not of long standing will give way to wholesome reactions in short order when the children come under the influence of a friendly, understanding teacher whose heart is in his work and whose primary interest is in the children themselves. Again, children need to feel that they are wanted, respected, and understood.

9. While teachers with excellent professional training can deal with most social and emotional deviation cases, there will always be a need for specialists—such as speech therapists, school psychologists, school nurses, visiting teachers, counselors and guidance workers, school physicians and school psychiatrists. A school psychologist or guidance worker for example, could well devote a fraction of his time working with teachers and the community in preventive mental hygiene; another fraction could be given to teachers, parents and the community in dealing with cases that need special help; and still another fraction working directly with cases, either as a member of a team or alone.

The Plot Against the Gifted

By DAVID WAYNE SMITH

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IT IS MOST difficult to grasp the gravity of the confusion that seems to surround the use of the term gifted. As though time had been rolled back several centuries to the brink of superstition, when civilization faced the insurmountable task of identifying the causes of disease and the processes of ageing and bodily deterioration. Unthinkable though it might seem, that in an age of science and machines, so little in the way of constructive thought has actually gone into the development of a functional means for identifying, educating, and utilizing a total gifted population.

In a world beset with the effects of rapid technological transition, a good deal of dedicated research must be exerted if we are to find the route whereby man may best prepare himself for the task of accepting and utilizing science. In fact, it should not be unfashionable to conceive that so long as the benefits of this *materialistic* age remain obscured to the rationale of the masses, little in the way of cultural advancement will ever be effected. Specifically, *automation*, now in its infancy, and rapidly advancing into adolescence, displacing and realigning our manpower, will only be really beneficial to a total humanity when more of the ramifications of this revolution are understood. The function of the public tax supported schools in this so-called timeless binge might be looked upon as a process designed to bring one horse-powered human minds a little closer to the un-

derstanding of multi-horse-powered technology in an ever widening universe.

The Great Challenge

Man must not delay the effort of educational enlightenment until that point in time when the horizons of knowledge reach tentacle-like into space, and the peoples of earth are faced with the additional task of interpreting the multitude of scientific discoveries now being made as a result of such research effort. These revelations become particularly alarming when one considers man's insensitiveness to the scientific knowledge that has already effected great changes in his pattern of living.

If the public schools should choose a course of action designed to teach the principles of science to future generations, this of course would be extremely helpful. It would also be well for the professional educator to devote some thought to the problem of finding and educating a population segment capable of assuming the burden of energetic leadership for the universe just ahead. We must also reach beyond chance factors and turn a greater proportion of the quality of minds that have harnessed the atom to its present dimensions of destruction, reduced calculations to micro-seconds, and devised machines that not only produce our daily bread but the weapons of war without the aid of human hands, into the fields of human struggle.

Inter-planetary communication will

no doubt be achieved in the lifetimes of the great bulk of the present population. It is cogitable, however, that we will be denied the rich satisfactions that should be ours as a civilization when that fete is accomplished. A world of men lacking in the skills necessary for appreciating basic scientific information, is a universe in all probability incapable of carrying interplanetary contact to a point where it will serve a rich and rewarding purpose.

Today, as well as the morrow, in order to avoid being only forgotten hours, depend heavily upon the efforts of our classroom teachers. Little in the way of effective challenge will ever emerge, however, so long as teachers are faced with the continuous task of meeting the needs of the wide range of abilities found in the children who daily participate in the classroom activities of our Nation's schools. The degree to which our teachers will be successful in nourishing the minds of our children, and particularly our gifted youngsters, depends largely on the willingness of a total population to unshackle the profession from such clauses as alphabetical grouping, and the social-centered curriculum.

Failure of the Emerging Curriculum To Emerge

One of the great dilemmas in the field of education stems from the apparent inability, actually, of the forces that shape the curriculum and mold the contours of the program of studies in the public schools, to join together toward the development of a more functional set of objectives. Because of this continued state of crisis, we have found ourselves as a profession amidst turmoil with respect to our gifted youth.

The failure of the various commun-

ities to fund a realistic public education system is responsible for our inability to prepare our children for living and participating in a contemporary society. Development of curricula for all children, and in particular our gifted youth can only be achieved through the dynamic efforts of determined leadership. The goal, then, of educational practice must be in the direction of making provisions for the interests, aptitudes, and abilities of a total population, regardless of the involved costs. Maintaining our eligibility as a Nation in the race for universal prestige hinges on the degree to which we are willing to accept the dimensions of these facts. The possibility that all too many of our communities have failed to provide the leadership and the money for such a program cannot be denied. It is further significant to postulate the prospects for changing the apathetic attitudes of our people towards their schools. This lag, were it to continue, will reduce our chances of continued success as an international power.

The Myth of Equality

The nebulous doctrine that holds Democracy to imply for every child an equal education, fails to heed the all important element of the child's capacity, and the agencies responsible for this education. Within this framework, and seen against a background of descending human values, churns the inevitable problem of individual differences. Democracy does guarantee to every man equality before the law, equality of freedom; but parity to learn and to be productive in a complex social order is a matter for additional and careful review. The vast range of human differences, as well as the innumerable cultural variables existent in society, do much to explode this myth. Formal education-

al institutions were originally designed for the purpose of helping children to become proficient in certain academic pursuits; because of the limitations imposed by archaic curricula (designed for a small select population), and the crush of overpopulated classrooms, the educational trust stands to be destroyed, and the public schools exposed to the prospect of becoming little more than dumping grounds for the unsolved and unassigned enigmas of the community.

American Attitude Toward The Education of The Gifted

There seems to be a definite imbalance between the negative and the positive attitudes toward the use of education for the development of the abilities of children. According to DeHaan and Havighurst (1) "There is still a *laissez faire* notion that "talent will out" in the American environment, that if it is true talent it will be irrepresible, that it will follow a natural course of development." Americans have been particularly slow to recognize the long overdue need for a shift in emphasis. Gifted children, because of their high intellectual potential, are not deficient in all other areas of development as some would lead us to believe. In fact, Terman's (3) monumental research has clearly demonstrated gifted children to be above average in all areas of measured development.

What is unfortunate about the attitudes of Americans is their undernourished condition. The undertaking of the task of citizen orientation must involve not only what is known, but also the attempt to state functionally much of the research findings. It is not uncommon for the attempt that is made to influence public sentiment to fail to take into account the meagre background

people actually have for handling scientific data. The fact that individuals are forced to turn to brief and often fragmentary accounts of new developments must be looked upon as an excuse and not a solution.

Perhaps what is needed most, in addition to our research teams, are people capable of communicating these findings to our American *man-on-the-street*. It is conceivable that only in this way will the vast number of the masses turn from the limited treatment by newspapers and popular magazine publications to a search for a much deeper appreciation and understanding of psychological and educational progress. In addition, then, to the turning of the forces of research energies on the numerous problems existent in our culture, we must also seek to bring to the attention of all the people the results of these undertakings. It is not presumptuous to predict that such an effort will go a long ways toward helping the oftentimes confused masses to revise old standards and concepts.

The Problem of Grouping

Certainly every attempt must be made to give children educational and motivational opportunities consistent with particular abilities and potential. When children are thrown together, however, grouped according to an alphabetical system, the wide range of abilities represented in such a group presents a difficult problem. In such a circumstance, the teacher in an effort to *keep pace*, fails to challenge the children to action. Pupils attending school under these conditions are left to shift for themselves, so that all too many gifted and bright youngsters do not realize their potential. When grouping errors shackle a school system, unchallenged children often develop poor attitudes toward the

school. When such frustrations exist in children in combination with other difficulties, such as home issues, these may give rise to more serious problems of attitude and social acceptance. The need for the school as well as the community to evaluate the existing system of grouping, possibly making motivational and educational opportunities available on a more equitable basis, cannot be overstressed.

Much of the responsibility for the failure of the schools to analyze the arduousness incurred in *chronological* grouping can be laid at the doorsteps of the communities. Through the boisterous efforts of certain *pressure groups* there has been effected in the public schools an apparent drift toward the glorification of *mediocrity*. Devotion to the dream of education for all in a classless society has led to a criticism of any program which is not the same for all children. Parents today accept as a matter of fact the educational opportunities available in the community. Never in the history of this great Nation has there existed such a pressing need for an educational *reawakening*.

Achievement

All too often society has been guilty of accepting what might be called achievement without investigating all of the ramifications of the term. Achievement in the public schools should not be based on race, creed, or color, but rather on the ability of boys and girls to profit from the exposure. How much more rewarding to civilization were we able to claim ours as a system of education giving our children educational opportunities consistent with *ability*. An interesting slogan is carried over the portal of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania's Department

of Public Instruction in Harrisburg, to the effect that "Education for all the people is America's noblest contribution to civilization." While there is very little to indicate that our present system cannot claim education for all regardless of race, creed, or color as a noble contribution, the fact remains that it must also admit its failure to challenge the abilities of boys and girls as a grave disappointment.

Providing for Gifted Children

If the schools are to carry out an effective program for gifted children, teachers must be assisted by school administrators and the community in exploring some of the more successful techniques. In spite of some current concern for the gifted, the bulk of them remain obscured, yet the responsibility of the classroom teacher. The vast majority of our school communities have done little or nothing for the gifted. In a few cities, particularly through the efforts of certain individuals and active teacher groups, gifted children are being identified and provided for. The five major ways in which schools are providing for youngsters of exceptional ability are: (1) Enrichment experiences stressing independent, creative thinking, (2) Grouping within the regular classroom, (3) Special ability groupings on a part-day basis, and (4) Accelerated promotion. A fifth plan involves the separation of the rapid learners so that these young people associate during the school day chiefly with pupils of similar high academic potential. (4) Among the many factors that have stimulated certain school systems to experiment, making special provisions for the abilities of children, the thesis of Conant (1) warrants careful consideration:

"To find and educate the gifted youth is essential for the welfare of the country; we cannot afford to leave undeveloped the greatest resource of the nation. To identify and guide gifted students as far as possible toward a place in our society commensurate with his or her ability is essential for the dynamic stability of a society of free men in an age of cities and machines."

The development of programs for gifted children and youth in our public schools should certainly bring about a restoration of *competition* and an appetite for quality and proficiency. Those who are

interested in really doing something about the problem must of necessity bring to the forefront some of the latest thinking, research, and practices. Professional educators, too, must seek to stimulate and guide the various community agencies and interested lay groups toward the improvement of the scope and adequacy of the education of gifted children. The goal of every program for these persons must be in the direction of enabling them to make outstanding contributions to the welfare of, and the quality of living in, a total society.

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According To Plan

By GAITHER McCONNELL

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ONE OF THE most vital factors in achieving desirable teaching-learning situations is effective planning. The effectiveness of planning bears direct relation to its quality. The quality is determined by the carefulness and completeness of planning.

Whether the learning situation is set-up in a more traditional, highly-structured, teacher-planned and dominated classroom, or with a newer type teacher-pupil co-operatively planning group of pupils, adequate plans must be formulated for developing learning outcomes and teacher-disciplined or self-disciplined students. Many aspects of this discussion relate primarily to the second type situation, but the first type can be improved by attention to more effective planning suitable to the situation.

All good teachers, it is assumed, plan. Plans, however, in many instances are more general than specific. They often stress purposes, procedures, materials, and evaluation for a group or for an entire class, instead of for individuals composing a group or a class. Planning, and resultant learning, can be made more effective by giving attention to some of the incompletely considered and often neglected aspects.

Purpose of Planning for Teaching

What is the purpose of planning for teaching? The purpose is to have the teacher think through specific experiences and activities which will be made available to students and then to determine the most effective procedures

for having students develop purposes which, when carried to completion, eventuate in modification of behavior, or learning.

There are numerous factors to be reckoned with in the above situation, and each one must be included in a good plan. Planning is not limited to "lesson" planning. Since teaching consists no longer of mere "lesson-hearing," plans are more than just "lesson" plans. Among the factors to be considered in planning are the following: objectives, motivation, teacher and pupil activities and behavior, materials, individual differences, creative activities, teacher-pupil planning, evaluation of the development of skills, habits, understandings, and attitudes, as well as the acquisition of facts and of information.

There is usually too much teacher activity and too little pupil activity when plans are not carefully and thoughtfully made. The teacher often fails to plan ways of challenging pupils to be active. Planning insures having objectives clearly in mind. The teacher's objectives are types of behavior changes, and her objectives are stated in terms of those behavior changes that are desired.

Plans are concerned with the growth and development of pupils. They take into consideration the effect of the materials and activities used on the growth of the individual, and on his behavior. A well organized plan provides a rich learning environment from which pupils will tend to select what they need for their own growth patterns.

Planning for Classroom Experiences

One of the chief purposes of planning is the improvement of the experiences of pupils in the class room. Plans take into account factors necessary for the *total* growth of each individual. The teacher keeps in mind the nature of the learning process and of the development of children and of youth. In planning experiences, the needs of pupils and their developmental tasks are considered. An analysis of the kinds of experiences that will be helpful in developing certain types of behavior is essential. This does not imply that the teacher grabs a bag of "whatever" and throws it out, assuming that because of the wide variety, each individual will find something to meet his need. Behavior changes involve integration of attitudes, appreciations, skills, and understandings. The kind of experiences provided are based on an extensive knowledge of each pupil.

Planning enables the teacher to provide a varied and complete curriculum consisting of a sequence of well balanced activities. In her planning, the teacher makes a direct connection between curriculum requirements and her knowledge and understanding of behavior patterns of certain age groups.

Planning for Individuals and for Groups

Planning is threefold: (1) for individuals, (2) for the group, (3) for individuals in a group. As the teacher thinks through the experiences for the group, she becomes aware of variations in interests, characteristics, abilities, past experiences, behavior, and problems among the individuals composing the group. She considers her effect on the pupils, their reactions to her personality and to the other pupils in the group. This awareness and understand-

ing of each pupil as an individual and as an interacting member of the group is the basis for anticipatory planning. Planning considers *individual* reactions, responses, and outcomes. Failure of the teacher to stimulate real interest in learning activities, and consequent lack of attention and behavior problems, is often due to the lack of recognition of and of planning for individual differences.

The procedure to be used in plans is sometimes stated in these terms: "Teacher says . . ."; or, "Teacher asks pupils . . ."; or "Class will do this . . ."; or "Class will determine . . ." But there is no provision for *how*. Thoughtful, complete planning will anticipate some of the problems that might arise:

What will Harry probably say?

What will Susan Do?

If Johnny, as usual, refuses to cooperate, how can such outright refusal or defiance be prevented?

Some decisions, some plans are group ones. With all of the emphasis on differences among pupils and on consideration of the individual, the likenesses or pupils, their common characteristics, needs, and interests are also taken into account. Planning is for group as well as individual teaching. The total group works together in developing responsibility, cooperation, consideration of the rights of others; the pupils work as individuals in developing creativity and skills and in learning facts, etc.

Planning For Individual Differences

A teacher, conscious of individual differences and with some understanding and awareness of the needs of both groups of pupils and individual pupils in her class, plans in the following and similar ways:

She provides learning experiences of proper difficulty for each child: some of the experiences are difficult enough to be challenging to the bright, requiring them to use initiative and effort in order to achieve success; other experiences are suited to the abilities and interests of the slow or dull, allowing them to develop self-confidence through achieving some success.

She presents learning as problem-solving, using real problems which children feel are worthwhile. In such situations each child will be able to do work and make contributions commensurate with his abilities.

She realizes that Violet, the shy one, needs recognition, but not for being quiet. She helps her develop special skills needed for others in the group and then encourages her to take part in group activities in which she receives recognition. This calls attention of other children to her and helps build relations around her.

She gives Tom, who needs and demands attention, recognition for letting others take a turn and for helping the teacher and other pupils carry out their projects.

She provides for Dick, who attempts to monopolize every discussion, opportunities to work, under supervision and guidance, with other children on joint projects to which each child's contribution is essential for a completed task.

She sees that all pupils develop purposeful activities leading to worthwhile goals by helping them plan activities in line with their abilities and giving them increasing responsibility for carrying out. Through self-motivated activity each pupil develops a purpose of his own.

Good planning takes into account suitable activities, materials, and resources and assures their availability. The teacher herself manipulates and explores the materials to be used by the pupils to determine their qualities and possibilities. She sees that the materials are readily accessible. She plans for

pupils to direct themselves in the care and use of the materials with a minimum of help from the teacher. She pre-explores places that the group will visit to determine the feasibility, advantages, and values that are available.

Planning For Stimulation of Creativity

Planning does not destroy the spontaneity nor the creativity of the pupils or of the teacher. Pupils who express a high degree of creativity are usually found in the classroom of a teacher who makes provision for stimulation of varied types, who plans for setting-up and maintaining an atmosphere of restrained freedom (self-control) where pupils may create fearlessly, who plans for developing attitudes that lead to a desire to create, who plans for helping children acquire skills and abilities leading to increasing and more satisfying creativity.

Teacher-planning does not necessarily imply closely structured, rigid, inflexible, teacher-dominated activities. Contrari-wise, teacher planning allows for greater freedom and for more creativity in the classroom. Planning with children is valuable only when the teacher has preplanned, or planned thoroughly for planning with pupils. The teacher plans for a variety of experiences out of which pupil purposes can develop. Her plans include provision for materials and media which stimulate the desire for creating and the need for the development of skills and for the acquisition of knowledge. Her plans include provision for time, opportunity, and suitable conditions for fulfilling those desires and needs.

Teacher-pupil planning does not mean pupils planning alone nor without direction or purpose. It does not imply haphazard or no planning. Pre-

planning results in the achievement of better quality outcomes during teacher-pupil planning. Pupils proceed with more meaning, purpose, and confidence in setting up procedures and activities during a planning period that has been planned by the teacher in advance. Effective and valuable teacher-pupil planning is proportionate to the quality of the teacher's planning for situations that may arise and for using suggestions that may come from the pupils.

Evaluation

Evaluation is a part of every plan. If objectives are set up, they are evaluated. Evaluation, continuous examination, is planned. Plans provide for setting up situations in which an evaluation of behavior can be made: for instance, such behavior as increasing ability to cooperate, to assume responsibility for self-

direction and for use and care of materials, to use communication skills, to locate and use factual material, etc.

A necessary factor in planning is evaluation of plans as they are used with pupils. Critically analyzed experience leads to more effective planning. If an activity or learning experience did not prove satisfactory in execution what was the cause? Was motivation ineffective? For whom and in what respects? Was discipline lacking? Why? What can be planned for individuals in the group? How can creative efforts be stimulated? For whom did the plan fail to provide? In what areas? What worked well? What materials and activities can be used again?

Successful outcomes result when teachers plan thoroughly for planning and provide learning situations according to plan.

MORE CHILDREN'S BOOKS

DOLLARS FOR YOU. By Adrian A. Paradis. N. Y. McKay. 1958. \$3.00.

High school boys who are anxious to earn money will find this book most helpful. Some one hundred-fifty odd ways for boys to make money are explained and many hints given as to how to embark upon a business venture. Throughout the importance of good work habits are stressed. A book for every high school library shelf.

ALASKA: THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE. By Evelyn I. Butler and George A. Dale. N. Y. Viking. 1958. \$3.50.

It will soon be one hundred years since Alaska became a territory of the United States. For long years, this territory remained an unknown quantity. Recently the great natural resources of this vast land have attracted us. Even now its people are little known to Americans of the forty-eight states. This book will introduce our secondary school youngsters to Alaska—the land, the people, its history, and its culture. Numerous photographs enhance the value of the text.

—Paul Zankowich

KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN: THE LITTLE SCHOOL TEACHER. By Miriam E. Mason. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill. 1958. \$1.95.

For generations now young readers have enjoyed such books as *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm* and *The Bird's Christmas Carol*. Some of these youngsters know that the author of these delightful stories was Kate Douglas Wiggin. But even these few would be hard pressed to tell anything of the life of this notable kindergartener and the fine work she did in training kindergarteners. This book presents a fine picture of this "little school teacher" suitable for middle grade readers.

—Paul Zankowich

MR. CHARLIE, THE FIREMAN'S FRIEND. By Edith Thatcher Hurd and Clement Hurd. Philadelphia. Lippincott. 1958. \$2.25.

Youngsters from 3 to 6 will get a kick out of this amusing story of Mr. Charlie who belonged to the Fire Bell Club and answered every fire alarm to see if he could help the firemen. Funny and informative.

—Paul Zankowich

Teacher Education *in* Reading

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PERSONNEL INVOLVED in the education of future teachers at St. Cloud State College believe that the professional preparation for teaching should include a strong developmental reading background. The undergraduate preparation attempts to provide teaching candidates with an adequate knowledge of the psychology, goals, and skills involved in the complex process of teaching reading. This preparation is designed to help the graduates feel relatively secure and professionally competent in this area. The success of a school's reading program is dependent upon adequately trained teachers. Remedial reading cases can be reduced and more students brought up to their level of ability if teachers are well trained in providing a reading program which is sequential and developmental in nature.

The professional preparation of elementary teachers includes two courses in developmental reading in addition to the preparation they receive in the area of language arts and in Children's Literature. The first course in reading is taken during the sophomore year and is entitled, *The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School*. This course is designed to acquaint students with the psychology of reading, procedures involved in the teaching of a directed reading lesson, sequential development of the skills, and extension and enrichment of skills through the independent

reading program. During the senior year, students are required to take another course in reading entitled, *Improvement of Reading Instruction in the Elementary School*.

It is recommended that students have some student teaching experience before taking this course to enable them to analyze and discuss procedures involved in their experience. In the senior course, current reading material and programs are discussed that are based upon needs, interests, and abilities of all students.

At the secondary school level, English majors are required to take the reading course *Developmental Reading in Junior and Senior High School*. Subject matter area majors are also encouraged to enroll for this course as an elective. The nature of high school reading programs, techniques in teaching a directed reading lesson, development of reading skills, reading interest, reading in the content area fields, and appraisals of reading abilities are topics brought under consideration in this course. Particular emphasis is given to instructing students in techniques of teaching reading through regular high school English classes.

A course in reading is offered which is designed to improve the education of personnel who will be involved in the administration and supervision of the reading program. *Administration and Supervision of the Reading Program*

emphasizes the implementation and improvement of developmental and remedial reading programs from pre-reading through the high school level.

These courses are not mere catalogue listings, but are regularly offered. To summarize, two developmental courses are required of elementary majors and one developmental course is required of high school English majors. High school content area majors are encouraged to take a developmental reading course as an elective. Undergraduate students may elect the course in *Administration and Supervision of the Reading Program* and it is recommended for graduate students who are working in the area of school administration and supervision.

Some of the methods and equipment used in the teacher education program at St. Cloud State are as follows:

1. The reading laboratory is liberally equipped with basal reading material.

The classroom is considered to be a reading laboratory. It contains basal readers, teachers' manuals, workbooks, recordings, pocket charts, word cards, and teaching devices useful in developing particular reading skills. The materials are readily available for classroom demonstrations and may be checked out by students for further study.

2. Directed reading lessons are demonstrated by the instructor.

A theoretical study is first made of the steps included in a directed reading lesson. These steps are then demonstrated by the instructor, with the class acting as a particular group of children. Publishers' service bulletins, which reproduce a story from their basal reading series with the accompanying teachers' manual, are used for demonstration purposes.

3. Students outline a directed read-

ing lesson using equipment provided in the reading laboratory.

Students are each given a basal reader, teachers' manual, and workbook. Basal reading material representing all major publishing companies serving Minnesota are used. They are assigned to outline one directed reading lesson. The outline pattern which is used may be found in Gray, Lillian and Reese, Dora, *Teaching Children to Read*, Ronald Press, New York, 1957, pp. 177-182.

4. Students demonstrate various phases of a directed reading lesson.

Various phases of a directed reading lesson are demonstrated by the students taking turns acting as a particular grade teacher and the other students taking the part of the particular group. Students are not only urged to use the teachers' manuals as guides, but also to use their own ingenuity and creativity in presenting the lesson.

5. Practice exercises are used to give students proficiency in the use of various word analysis skills.

A series of practice exercises have been devised to give students practice in using the phonetic principles, syllabic principles, inflectional endings, prefixes and suffixes, and auditory identification of various consonant and vowel elements. Sheer verbal presentation of the word analysis program is not enough to insure that students are adequately prepared in this area. They should demonstrate proficiency in using these skills. It is the author's opinion that unless students understand and are able to use word analysis techniques, it is not likely that they will be able to teach them. Too often the skills program in reading is neglected by teachers because of lack of understanding on their part.

6. Films and recordings are used to demonstrate various teaching techniques.

Films and recordings used in our teacher education program include:

Gregory Learns to Read, The Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit 2, Michigan, 1957, 28 min.

Learning to Study, Encyclopedia Britannica, Film, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., 1954, 14 min.

Reading, Jim Handy Organization, 281 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan. (Film strips with records)

Reading With Suzy, Chuchill-Wexler Film Productions, 801 N. Seward St., Los Angeles 38, California, 1952, 10 min.

They All Learn to Read, Syracuse University Educational Film Library, Bldg. D-7, Collendale, Syracuse 10, N. Y., 1955, 28 min.

7. A syllabus is used in each course.

A syllabus containing questions for each unit of work is designed to give purpose and guidance to student preparations.

Reference material is suggested for each unit of work.

8. Students are encouraged to use the Survey Q3R Method of Study in their preparations for the reading courses.

The Survey Q3R Method of Study as described in Robinson, Francis, *Effective Study*, Harper and Brother Publishers, New York, 1946, is presented to students in the sophomore

reading class during the first week of the course. The film *Learning to Study* is correlated with the classroom presentation. Students are urged to use this method of study in the preparation of their assignments. Students who learn to use this technique are often personally benefited in future courses and are better equipped to teach this study skill to their prospective students.

9. Devices to promote the learning of some reading skill are constructed by the students.

In the advance class in reading, students are required to construct two devices that may be used as a means of improving some reading skill. The reading devices are displayed in the classroom and each student is required to demonstrate its operation. Occasionally, these devices are put on display for examination by the whole student body.

Research studies and opinions of authorities in the field of reading indicate that the teacher is the most potent influence in the success of a reading program. A particular method or a particular set of materials does not take the place of a competent teacher. The teacher education program at St. Cloud State, therefore, seeks to develop in students a feeling of professional confidence and competence. Although a background of knowledge and a sense of confidence is gained, it remains for graduates to continue to grow professionally through inservice programs and professional readings.

The Effect of Training in Leadership On a Supervisor

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Leadership Patterns

LEADERSHIP IS AN art, and like other arts requires self-expression.

There are some basic rules or formulas connected with an art, but these are primarily guides to self-expression. Techniques used successfully by some, are perhaps not usable by others. However, an individual learning the art must first convert knowledge to techniques, master the techniques, and then perhaps blend them with personal characteristics that lead to self-expression.

Perfection in leadership, as in any art, is never achieved. There is always room for improvement. Techniques of leading must change with changing times, with variance in customs, and with the differences in the ideals of the society of our day. Too, applied research in psychology, sociology, and related fields render some of the previously accepted techniques as invalid and in need of change. This then, means that leadership is not necessarily measured in terms of what a person does, but rather in terms of the effects of what he does. Leadership actions must be developed which fit individual and group personalities and bring effective results when used by an individual in a particular manner.

This is not intended to indicate that knowledge of leadership patterns is not

important. Quite the contrary, for the greater the knowledge of the leader, the more probable are his chances of selecting and developing a pattern which will mean success for him. Knowledge is valuable. Techniques are valuable. Patterns are valuable. However, in the final analysis, the results achieved determine the success or failure of an individual placed in a position requiring leadership.

Supervisor Personnel

The supervisor has a unique function in the educational program. Growth in a democratic society comes from understanding of the value of the contributions of others. The conception of supervision as guidance, in which the supervisor accepts his responsibility in furthering the growth of both children and teachers in a fellowship of mutual appreciation and helpfulness, is emerging more clearly. Guidance has become the key-word today, not domination. Before any supervision as guidance can be attacked the supervisor must first understand the feelings of teachers. The supervisor who would guide teachers in the development of children must have knowledge of the generalizations of human growth and the principles of guidance as well as the implications of these concepts for supervision.

Smith claims, "We spend more in

research on how to raise better pigs and better corn, or how to make better machines and gadgets than we invest in making better human beings." (7, p. 36)

One of the best efforts made by writers in the field of supervision as guidance resulted in a book by Helseth and Stiles. The book consists of descriptions of actual happenings from experiences in which the writers were participants or observers. In the introduction the authors reveal the purpose of the book. They write:

Emphasis has been given to how guidance is accomplished through close co-operation of supervisor and teacher. Ample material is now available in print which presents general techniques of supervision as well as the basic principles related to the field. Notably lacking, however, is material which shows in detail how the supervisor translates these theories into actual practice. The need for books which would describe specifically and concretely the interaction between supervisor and teacher in the process of guiding human development prompted the authors to make these selected experiences available in printed form. (3, p. 1)

If supervisors are to acquire skill in helping teachers clarify and attack the problems they recognize, and if they are to encourage thoughtful, group-planned experimentation which is designed to improve practices as widely and rapidly as possible, there is a need for the selection and training of those assuming leadership, for the entire program of supervision is dependent upon democratic leadership.

Smith also claims that most school systems are not providing administrative assistance with the necessary qualifications for leadership, and he points

out that there is a need for leadership in problems of in-service education. (7, p. 34)

Qualifications of Supervisors

The requirements for supervisors have been limited for the most part to successful experience in classroom teaching, graduate study related to the problem of supervision, and some form of educational degrees. Supervisors enter the field of supervision directly from the classroom, through administrative positions of various kinds, and from the position of instructors in teachers' colleges. Certainly, there appears to be no lack in practical experience in the field of classroom teaching or a background of other educational experience as preparation for supervision. However, it does not always hold true that a successful classroom teacher makes the best supervisor.

One big consideration to be reckoned with is the fact that once good teachers are placed in supervisory positions, the ability to teach must share its importance with an ability to deal effectively with others. Many teachers promoted to supervisory positions have spent little time or effort in learning to deal with people. If a supervisor places a priority on how to deal with people, in directing them, satisfying their needs, and developing their abilities, supervision will be successful.

Armstrong in relation to those selected to be supervisors writes:

Individuals selected to be supervisors should possess moral stamina, a sense for the beauty of the spirit, and an inquiring mind. They should be free of the conventional prejudices and fears. . . Unless supervisors are crucially important, they are nothing. (1)

Supervisors' Training

Inadequately trained personnel in educational leadership appears to be the greatest lack and a major handicap to effective supervision. Educational leadership presupposes that the supervisor is one who appreciates, recognizes and encourages strengths in individuals. He inspires creativeness in others, and utilizes the leadership ability of all, using cooperative procedures. He is both objective and human, placing people as individuals on the top rung of the ladder of his principles of supervision. As specialists in human relationships, supervisors should be trained in the type of leadership necessary to fulfill the conception of supervision as educational leadership.

The supervisor needs a background of successful classroom teaching at various levels of a child's growth which results in a broad viewpoint of education. Reavis and his co-authors state in regard to those aspiring to positions of leadership in elementary schools:

A persons who desires to become an elementary school principal or supervisor must possess not only the essential personal qualities and professional training required of teachers, but also the special qualities and special training considered fundamental in elementary school administration and supervision. (4)

Supervisors' Certification

A status study of the certification requirements for supervisors of instruction in the United States was made by Richard. The report of this study also points to some of the major opportunities and responsibilities of instructional leadership in today's schools. Since the responsibilities are great, standards for selection and professional preparation

should be commensurate with its responsibilities. Richard reports that thirty-three states now require special certification for supervisors of instruction. In fourteen states no special certificate specifically authorizing supervision of instruction is provided in the regulations. One state did not reply to the questionnaire. (5).

How to educate personnel for the task of supervision is a problem which has been neglected to a great extent. Quality of service rendered by supervisors depends upon the education acquired on how to provide expert service on a consultation basis. The very nature of the newer titles bestowed upon supervisors implies leadership. The word "director" no longer characterizes the way a supervisor works. He is a guide, a consultant, a resource person. When a supervisor is employed it should imply that there will be steady progress toward better instructional opportunities for boys and girls. Some people can be good leaders in one situation but not in others. Leadership is not a person nor a position. It involves the activities of a person by which he is able to provide help to individuals or groups with the means necessary to achieve stated goals.

Shannon was quite emphatic when he wrote, "Supervisory and administrative positions in education should be filled by men of adult stature professionally, and not by educational hypochondriacs. (6)

Supervisor Leadership

In a bulletin published by the United States Office of Education it states in regard to leadership:

Proper leadership recognizes no ceiling for educational improvement. It continually strives for the highest plane

possible. Every educational program may be affected for the better. It is exercised through the discovery, mobilization, and release of the creative abilities and best efforts of all concerned. It is directed toward the full utilization of all available resources. It fosters improvement through the development of local initiative and experimentation. Excellence in education is obtained through leadership. More and more state departments of education are exerting their influences not so much by the power and authority of the department as by the excellence of its leadership and guidance. (2)

Helseth and Stiles present the following implications for supervision of the scientific truths of human development and guidance:

1. The supervisor will begin with each teacher at the point to which he has advanced in understanding and directing child growth and development.
2. The supervisor will lead each teacher step by step into improved techniques in guiding children.
3. The supervisor will take the lead in stimulating interactions on the part of the teacher with children, colleagues, supervisors, principals, superintendents, parents, and community and professional groups.

4. The supervisor will be sensitive to overt behavior, keen to see symptoms in relation to trends in development, analytical in searching for causes which underlie symptoms of behavior.
5. The supervisor will help the teacher to develop power in self-evaluation and self-direction.
6. The supervisor will conceive of the teacher as a person in the process of continuous development from one level of professional insight to another. (3, p. 72)

Summary

Supervision is a role which can be taken only by trained professional men and women who are familiar with the classroom, who work non-administratively in warm, human relationships with teachers opening the way to the achievement of every teacher's hopes and aspirations. Training for leadership roles is critical if supervisors are to assume leadership responsibility involving primarily the understanding of human relations which may help explain what we do, how and why we change, and the effect we have upon one another. Only through proper training in leadership for those who supervise, will supervision be interpreted as guidance.

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What Schools Are Doing In Developing Guidance Programs

By GUY WAGNER

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"The ends pre-exist in the means."

—Emerson

BOBBY, A RATHER clumsy fourth-grade boy was held in low regard by his classmates. Unfortunately, Bobby came from family circumstances where cultural advantages were extremely limited. His obvious social limitations and a natural physical awkwardness contributed to this lack of status.

One day during recess, the teacher noticed Bobby making an unusually good catch of a high fly ball. To this sensitive and deeply concerned teacher an excellent guidance situation was at hand. As Bobby ambled by on his way to the classroom the teacher found occasion to bend down and with a prideful voice quietly remark, "Bobby, that was a *wonderful* catch I saw you make." Bobby grinned his pleasure at this note of assurance. Who knows what the incidental remark meant to his feeling of self-respect? But even "incidental" remarks can be planned and thus become part of a chain of circumstances which a teacher may contrive to help better a boy's status with himself and with his peers. Such thoughtful but indirect ap-

proaches are essential parts of a good guidance program. From this illustration it may be noted that inherent in the *means* a teacher uses are the *goals* she seeks to achieve.

It is one thing, however, to set up educational goals; it is quite another to achieve them. Unfortunately, our most laudable objectives frequently are not attained. What is the reason? Probably the *means* used were inappropriate.

If, as Emerson says, "The ends pre-exist in the means", schools must be thoughtfully alert to the means selected for the attainment of their objectives. For only as pupils are guided through experiences of consequence to them can a school hope to achieve its established goals. A successful guidance program may be our best assurance that inherent in the means we use will be the goals which we hope to attain.

One of the most important emphases in present-day education is that of guiding each pupil so that his personal growth will match his potentialities. Along with this personal guidance, in-

volving such things as academic choices and the better understanding of the individual's problems, there is also consideration given to vocational guidance.

A major role of guidance and counseling is to help individuals develop the ability to make wise decisions. If the guidance program is truly successful the individual will grow in the ability to make proper decisions and thus his need for counseling from others is reduced as he matures. When we recall that individuals are daily being guided, whether they have the benefit of wise counseling or not, we can more readily sense the important part which an organized guidance program can play in the education of our young people.

In the present world crisis, where there is an imperative need for each individual to make his best contributions to the strength of America, the need for top-level guidance services is only too obvious. Schools must see to it that our young people are guided into vocational fields where they can be of greater service to society while at the same time they are obtaining deep personal satisfactions from their work. The present field of occupational choices is so diversified and jobs are of such highly specialized nature that long-range vocational planning of young people can no longer be left to chance.

It should also be noted that, while full-time guidance workers and counselors are important, it is upon the classroom teacher herself that the major responsibilities for guidance must rest. In school systems large enough to have guidance directors, their best successes are likely to come through the help and leadership which they give to these classroom teachers.

The following reviews indicate in some measure the practices and directions of current guidance programs in several selected school systems.

Euclid Public Schools, *Homeroom Guidance*, Curriculum Bulletins 26-31, Euclid, Ohio, 1956.

These six manuals for the Euclid secondary schools have been developed by a guidance committee with the aid of the entire professional staff.¹ They are designed to be used as curriculum guides and are adjustable to the specific needs of individuals and groups. They are excellent examples of school planning on the local level.

Listed in the table of contents of each booklet are all of the suggested guidance topics from seventh through twelfth grade. These topics fall into four broad categories—*educational*, *personal*, *social*, and *vocational*. A more descriptive term follows each topic. Below are several illustrations of topics in the *social* area which are studied at the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade levels:

Seventh Grade: Parties, Pupil-Teacher Relationships, Responsibilities in Groups, Why Parental Controls?

Eighth Grade: Dating, Understanding Others, Taking Part in The Family.

Ninth Grade: School Citizenship, Social Skills, Family Responsibility, Dating.

Other specific topics are taken up in more advanced grades, and some of the above are reconsidered as students mature.

As a prerequisite to the development of these homeroom manuals, members of the Euclid staff have outlined the needs of pupils, the principles underlying the general educational program, and the philosophy which directs the activities within each level of education.

Oregon State Department of Education, *Group Guidance in Oregon Secondary School*, State Library Building, Salem, Oregon, 1956.

This collection of group guidance

1. Guidance suggestions on the elementary level are found in the Euclid Public Schools *Elementary Curriculum Guides*.

units was developed through the cooperation of state department personnel, public school administrators and teachers, and graduate students and faculty members of the University of Oregon. After the units had been tentatively constructed, each was submitted to an Oregon teacher known for successful work in the particular area which the unit was designed to cover. These teachers in turn suggested changes, additions, and revisions which seemed desirable in the light of practical experience. The units were then revised and published in handbook form.

Each unit is planned to be integrated with one or two of the various academic courses in the secondary curriculum. Each makes provision for student experience in three important guidance areas: (1) adjustment to new situations, (2) exploratory opportunities which cut across many subject-matter lines, and (3) group approaches to common personal problems. Some units may be started in the seventh grade and re-approached from time to time at higher levels. Others are treated at higher levels only.

The following topics are included: Your New Environment, Planning Your Education, Working and Studying Effectively, Choosing Your Career, Meeting Your Personal Problems, Your Family, Your Outlook on life, Using Your Leisure Profitably, Becoming a Leader, Guarding Your Health, and Guarding Your Life (Safety).

State Department of Education, Commonwealth of Virginia, *Guidance Handbook*, Richmond, Virginia, 1951 (With later revisions).

This handbook provides a general plan for the development and improvement of systematic guidance services within local school systems. Suggestions for guidance practices and organizational procedures were collected from hundreds of educators throughout the state and were written and edited by members of the State Consultation Service and Regional Directors of Guidance. The booklet offers not only a method

for effective utilization of facilities and personnel in the large school, but also a plan for surmounting the apparent limitations of the small one.

There are two major divisions in the booklet. The first outlines the duties and responsibilities of administrators, counselors, teachers, pupils, parents, and community members with respect to local guidance programs. The second discusses desirable aspects of the guidance program itself—orientation, individual counseling, group guidance, placement services, follow-up studies, and evaluative procedures. Separate organizational patterns for large and small school systems are presented.

In the appendix are listed the county and state agencies which serve local guidance programs. A look at this list will outline for the reader a statewide guidance and counseling organization of unusual scope and facility.

The *Guidance Handbook* is highly recommended for those who wish to stimulate organized guidance services in local school systems, for those who would make more efficient use of the various guidance tools and techniques, and for those who seek to establish better guidance and counseling services on the local and state levels.

St. Paul Public Schools, *Exploring the World of Work*, Curriculum Bulletin Number 55, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1956, 32 pages.

Prepared by a counselors' committee for the St. Paul schools, this handbook is designed as a resource unit for pupil orientation to modern vocational opportunities. Some of the principal objectives of the unit are: (1) to help pupils become familiar with themselves in the light of their own interests, aptitudes, and limitations, (2) to encourage student realization of the dignity of productive labor, (3) to point out changing vocational opportunities and conditions, and (4) to further develop basic communication skills. Activities suggested are varied to stimulate a wide range of abilities and interests. Since the unit has been designed in part to lead stu-

dents into wiser planning of their subsequent educational preparation, it was developed originally for the ninth grade. It could be used to advantage, however, at any secondary grade level.

In addition to the unit overview and its suggested activities, the booklet contains an excellent bibliography of vocational materials, a list of free or inexpensive teaching aids, and some sound ideas for over-all planning of the unit. There is a sample program for a school-community night, a series of suggested helps for teachers, a list of facts which should be known about a local occupational area, and a set of student self-analysis forms which may be reproduced and used by other school systems.

Blanche B. Paulson, *Talent Finding and Career Planning in Chicago Public Schools*, Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Illinois, 1950.

This booklet is the second in a series published by the Department of Instruction and Guidance to present principles and practices in the Chicago Public Schools curriculum. It illustrates the modern complexity of life and stresses the fact that vocational and educational choices of young people can no longer be left to chance. It describes Chicago's twelve-year guidance program as being primarily geared to satisfy student curiosity about self and to present avenues for self-fulfillment.

There is a brief overview of the course in Self-Appraisal and Careers, which is an intensified phase of vocational guidance offered to upper classmen in the high schools. In this course, each pupil studies himself to discover his own vocational abilities and interests as they are interpreted from test results. He also is afforded the opportunity to explore fields of work and to set future educational and vocational goals for himself with the aid of a counseling specialist.

The booklet is concluded with a description of the administrative pat-

tern for the Chicago guidance program. There is a bibliography of selected references for students and teachers.

Los Angeles City Schools, *Plotting Your Course*, Senior Editor, Publication Number 581, Los Angeles, California, 1954, 241 pages.

In the Los Angeles City Schools, courses in vocational guidance are first presented to the ninth and tenth grades. In these courses students learn about their own interests and aptitudes and get a general picture of the range of occupations open to them in the light of their individual characteristics. Completion of the tenth grade finds them with some basic concepts which will facilitate their effective participation in later vocational guidance activities.

Plotting Your Course is designed to help seniors appraise these previous school experiences and evaluate their capabilities with regard to future employment and further training. In order that it may accomplish this purpose, the handbook has been organized to make available to the student a compendium of recent information concerning statewide employment trends and educational opportunities. Specifically, the objectives of the book are to help the pupil (1) discover his own vocational interests, (2) determine his abilities and aptitudes in specific fields, (3) explore the fields of work and develop a respect for the dignity of labor, (4) decide upon an appropriate vocational objective, (5) become acquainted with military obligations, (6) plan a program of further education which will serve his own capacities and opportunities and (7) learn how to get the right job, how to hold it, and how to achieve success at it.

This handbook, used with the companion volume *You and Your Job*,² serves to augment the work of counselors and other guidance personnel in large school systems. It provides invaluable occupational information to students and their parents.

2. *You and Your Job*, Publication No. SC-469, Los Angeles City School District, Los Angeles, California.

Clubs In Junior High School

By JAMES S. THISTLE

*Principal, Junior High School
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OUR JUNIOR HIGH school in Wellesley, Massachusetts, has organized forty clubs which meet one period a week during the regular school day. Our justification for giving clubs a place along side English and Latin in the program of studies is based on our firm conviction that clubs have something worthwhile to offer boys and girls of the adolescent age.

Some may say that you shouldn't have a club in school unless there is a demand for it. Why not take the same attitude toward English and mathematics? Let us not organize a class in English or mathematics until the pupils demand it and see what happens. It is just as sensible to place a club offering in the curriculum as it is to put music and art there. What right have we to expect boys and girls of the junior high school age to elect clubs unless provision is made for them as it is for so-called regular subjects.

Clubs Not Extracurricular

It is high time we stopped calling clubs "extra". They should be as curricular as practical arts or household arts. Clubs provide learning situations as genuine as any in regular subjects, and in many cases more so because of their practicality.

If those educators who believe that the pupils themselves should initiate clubs would only place in the program of studies the names of a few club possibilities, they would soon discover how quickly youngsters would select them. For example, let them list such clubs as Radio, Athletic, Crafts, Photography,

Dramatics, Wrestling, in the program of studies and see what happens. There would certainly be a "demand" for them! Clubs have more exploratory and interest values than almost any other subject commonly found in the program of studies. But pupils cannot be expected to know about them unless they are offered, and unless there is guidance in selecting them.

Exploratory Nature of Clubs

We suggest a philosophy of clubs which maintains that "interests" may be discovered and acquired by joining a club for which a youngster had no interest at the start. Naturally there can be no interest if he knows nothing about it. Therefore one of the main purposes of clubs is to *discover interests*. Surely a child doesn't select Latin because he has an interest in it. By the same reasoning why deny him a club opportunity until he develops an "interest" in it?

A boy asked if he could join the Stamp Club. He said he knew nothing about stamps but would like to learn. He wondered if "you had to know about stamps in order to get into it." He was permitted to join. There were enough stamp club members who did know something about stamps so that he learned from them wholly apart from any teacher-sponsor contribution.

I recall a group of twenty pupils wanting to organize a certain club, but there was no teacher who knew much of anything about it. One teacher, however, on hearing about it volunteered to sponsor the group provided it was understood by the club members that

she was there to learn. They welcomed her; she learned much about her new-found interest. She considered it a most valuable experience and in addition she had a "wonderful time".

We have had several members of the Radio Club become "ham" operators, secure licenses, and given responsibilities in the town's Civil Defense program as short wave operators. From the Model Boat Club we have had several boys win prizes in sailing their boats in the Boston Sailing Regatta. A girl became a librarian because of her experiences in the Library Club. Here the exploratory value of clubs was at work. A number of Dramatic Club members later on in life engaged not only in amateur productions, but I recall two who made Broadway.

Procedure For Organizing

Briefly, the procedure for organizing our club program each school year starts with a review of our general club philosophy at an early faculty meeting. Faculty members agree to write descriptive paragraphs of some club activity that they would be willing to sponsor. Pupils also send in suggestions as to what clubs they would like to see organized. The two are then adjusted as much as possible so that teachers will not have to sponsor a club in which they have no interest.

The teachers' descriptive paragraphs of clubs are mimeographed, and two periods of club guidance, a week apart, are held in the homerooms. The homeroom teachers read the club descriptions, explain them, and together with the general information given at faculty meetings they prepare the pupils for club selections. The pupils' choice slips are then sent to the office and used as the basis for club formations.

This year forty (40) clubs were

formed and are now in full swing. Here is a list of our forty clubs:

- Boys' Athletic
- Girls' Athletic
- Biology
- Booklovers
- Cartooning
- Ceramics
- Chemocrats (Chemistry)
- Copper Enameling
- Crafts (wood)
- Crafts (plastics, metal)
- Dramatic (grade 7)
- Dramatic (grade 7)
- Dramatic (grade 7)
- Dramatic (grade 8)
- Dramatic (grade 8)
- Dramatic (grade 9)
- French
- Gift
- Needlecraft, Knitting
- Golf
- Indoor Games (grade 7)
- Indoor Games (grade 8)
- International Music
- Girls' Leaders (physical)
- Mathematics
- Model Boat
- Obedience Dog Training
- Photography I
- Photography II
- Projectionists
- Public Speaking and Debating
- Radio I
- Radio II
- Sports Fans (grade 7)
- Sports Fans (grade 7)
- Sports Fans (grade 8)
- Stamps
- Wee Scientists
- Wrestling

Nine hundred seventy of the 1040 pupils selected a club. About sixty chose a study period instead. These forty clubs will change at the end of the half year. Any pupils wishing to continue, however, may do so; others may select new clubs. Thus the entire student body are privileged to have new club experiences for the second half year.

As may be noted in the list above many of the clubs supplement regular curriculum offerings. In fact they

might be called the practical expression of more formalized subject matter. Other clubs are justified on the basis of their own contribution to the student.

Motivation—Leadership

Motivation of many worthwhile qualities are developed in clubs that are not so readily developed in the regular classroom. Among these are good manners, friendship, fair play, respect for others, self-direction and self-discipline.

Motivation and leadership are further enhanced in the high degree of pupil participation that takes place in clubs. All clubs have officers elected by members. Club sessions are opened with a brief business meeting. Members learn to conduct these meetings in a parliamentary manner. Club programs are often planned by committees of the members, and through committee reports and orderly discussions at the meetings. Here are opportunities for practical experiences in responsibility and co-operation. Indeed there are many potentials for leadership and individual initiative that arise out of the challenging and creative situations in club activities.

Adolescent Adjustment

Club sessions are especially adapted to meeting the problems of adolescent adjustment to a new period in the school life of the child. The age of adolescence is a time when the youngster is full of energy and vitality. This energy is nature's special gift to youth and must be

understood. It is the responsibility of school people to harness this energy, and to direct it into proper channels. School clubs provide the action-type activities that meet these growing needs. Indeed clubs have their basis in adolescent psychology and physiology in that they grow out of inherent needs and interests in the lives of youngsters at this time of life.

Another reason for the adjustment and orientation value of clubs is that in club sessions boys and girls have a chance to see their instructors under less formal circumstances than usually exist in the regular classroom.

Conversely, instructors have a similar opportunity to observe the pupil. In the club activity the child can relax more, he can meet his fellow students on a more social basis, and they can learn many things together in an atmosphere where marks and recitations are not objectives of the learning process.

Carry-Over

From our experience with this type of club program we have no hesitation in saying that there is a very definite carry-over of club interest and club information into after school hours and into later life. We have seen the club opportunities serve vocational, avocational and leisure-time pursuits as well as bringing a little more joy and happiness into what could be for many, a routine, drab school experience.

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Supervising *the* Teaching of Arithmetic

By HERBERT T. OLANDER

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SCHOOL PERSONNEL engaged in supervising arithmetic instruction, whether these individuals are generalists like elementary principals or specialists such as arithmetic supervisors, must be sensitive to and skilled in (1) general aspects of instruction and leadership that apply to all learning areas and (2) specific problems that apply particularly to arithmetic.

General aspects underlying the supervision of any and all elementary school learning areas include such concerns as general aims of education; the group process, involving democracy in human relations and leadership in working with all of the types of people who have a stake in the educative process such as teachers, pupils, and parents; and, third, knowledge and skill in applying recognized principles of learning. In the present discussion no effort will be made to deal with the more general aspects of supervision. Instead, some problems that pertain particularly to arithmetic instruction will be discussed.

What, then, are some of the questions in the area of arithmetic that a supervisor should study?

1. *Are the recognized goals of arithmetic instruction being realized?*

Whereas the traditional arithmetic teacher was absorbed with the mechanics of number manipulation, the modern

one does not feel that her task has been adequately achieved if, in addition to this implied goal, a pupil does not have a fundamental grasp of our number system, a clear understanding of arithmetic concepts and the various number relationships involved, a thorough awareness of the social uses of number, the ability to apply number manipulations to practical life situations, and an intense interest in the study of numbers.

Probably most important among these goals is that of the pupils' having clear meanings. On the windshield of a supervisor's thinking during supervisory visits everlasting should be the question "Do children fundamentally, or only superficially, understand what the teacher is attempting to teach?" In a first grade room five children, each holding one of the five symbols to represent $3 + 2 = 5$, were lined up in front of the room by the teacher. One might well ask what single value is to be gained as regards number meanings by such teaching tactics? This is a pure waste of time. This same teacher made another attempt to teach the meaning of the symbols in question. She sketched roughly pictures of dogs on the blackboard in the following manner

X X X (dogs)
X X (dogs)

X X X X X (dogs)

Again, it is doubtful that this exercise added anything toward clarifying the situation. Actually, in $3 + 2 = 5$ the 3 and the 2 become a part of the larger group 5. In the illustration above the 3 dogs and the 2 dogs are *outside* of the 5 dogs.

In a fourth grade room one youngster had learned a trick that one could prove a quotient is correct through the process of multiplication. In trying to check his answer in the example

$$\begin{array}{r} 722 \text{ R}2 \\ 3 \overline{) 2168} \end{array}$$

he was laboring with $3 \times 2168 + 2$ and becoming further and further perplexed. One wonders what his concept of division was and particularly his appreciation of the relationships between the three numbers in the example.

In a fourth grade room a teacher was dealing with the concept "average." First she and the children added the cost of four pairs of shoes which a mother had bought for her children, namely, \$6.00, \$4.00, \$2.95, and \$3.75. This came to \$16.70. To the teacher's question the children promptly called this the "sum." They then divided by 4 (the number of items) and got \$4.17 with 2 cents remaining. Nobody had any idea what the result of this division represented. When they were told that this was the "average cost of the shoes" there seemed to be little light cast through the fog of their thinking. Most of the pupils, no doubt, wondered what to do with the 2 cents remaining. The teacher tried another example. On three different days last week, she said, she spent on gasoline for her automobile \$3.20, \$2.40, and \$2.00. This added up to \$7.60. How to find the average? A boy suggested dividing by 3 (the number of items), so this was done. The teacher looked at this manipulation and said, shaking her head, "No, since there are

seven days in a week we had better divide by 7," which they did. The children looked confused at this turn of events. In the first example the "average" was arrived at by dividing the sum by the number of items. In the last example the number of items was 3 but because there were 7 days in a week the divisor this time was made 7. What success the teacher has had since in establishing a fundamental grasp of "average" is not known to the writer. Surely the approach she made was not a fruitful one. The writer is reminded of a colored porter on a southern railroad train being asked by a northern gentleman "What is your average tip for this service?" "It's two dollars, boss," he replied. When the gentleman concerned rather grudgingly relinquished the two dollars the porter replied "You is the fust pusson who has come up to the average."

In another fourth grade room a teacher explained

$$\begin{array}{r} 1900 \\ -1758 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

by saying "We borrow a 1 from the 10 and give it to the 0 making it a 10." Since there is nothing in the ten's place from which to "borrow," one can only conjecture what grasp of the number system and the application of this understanding to the process of subtraction is being achieved in this classroom.

2. *Are the goals set for a particular school grade or for a particular group of children appropriate?*

A supervisor must familiarize himself with the arithmetic goals or expectations that can probably be achieved by children at each advancing chronological age or maturity level. Some of the data for this, such as the findings of the Committee of Seven that have dictated grade placement in innumerable courses of study and arithmetic texts

through the years, are being revised in the light of study of more recent arithmetic practices, such as the increased emphasis upon understanding on the part of the children that is now characterizing arithmetic instruction.

An example of a goal is the attempt, so often made, to teach the concept "average" in the fourth grade, which has been alluded to here in a preceding paragraph. It is very questionable that ordinary children in that grade can achieve any real grasp of this term.

In a second grade room the following table was on the blackboard:

60 seconds = 1 minute

60 minutes = 1 hour

24 hours = 1 day

7 days = 1 week

Research does not indicate that a seven-year old child has any real grasp of the relationships implied in this list. For example, he has little appreciation of a second of time and much less of the fact that there are 60 such time intervals in a minute. Even the concept of a minute is probably beyond the ordinary second grader.

In a fourth grade room a teacher was spending considerable time trying to familiarize the children with the terms "dividend," "minuend," and "subtrahend." These terms have little social value for children of this age and attempts to teach such terms at this level of maturity is one reason for many children's dislike for arithmetic.

3. *Does the supervisor have adequate knowledge and skill in arithmetic so that he in turn can recognize inadequacies among teachers and thus be able to help them?*

If a "Yes" can not be given to the question above it will be a case of the blind trying to lead the blind. On a mimeographed arithmetic exercise sheet

designed for the sixth grade appeared the question "When you change $2\frac{1}{3}$ to an improper fraction you multiply ----- by ----- and add -----." One pupil had inserted that 2 was to be multiplied by 3. Since there are 3 thirds in 1 it is obvious that in 2 there would be 2×3 or 6 thirds. In checking this pupil's paper the teacher counted his answer correct, making no attempt to straighten out the child's thinking.

In a fourth grade room a pupil was asked how he thought out the answer to " $\frac{1}{9}$ of 270?" He replied "How many 9's are there in 270?" The teacher accepted this. Apparently she knew little about the distinction between division by measurement and division by partition. Clearly in this example 270 is being divided into 9 equal parts and the question is how large each part be — not how many 9's are there in 270.

In the example

$$\begin{array}{r} 286 \\ \times 37 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

a pupil, in explaining his answer, said " 8×3 ." It is apparent that 286 is being taken 37 times and in this step in the solution 8 tens are being multiplied by 3 tens which would involve 3×8 . This may seem to be an insignificant point but to one trained in exact understandings and helping others to attain such understandings the difference between 8×3 and 3×8 here is most important. In the first one we are finding the equivalent of adding eight 3's; in the second, three 8's.

In an eighth grade room a teacher was having the children round numbers. The number .734 was to be rounded. A pupil said ".70." the teacher said there was no difference between .7 and .70, that adding 0's to the right of the 7 in this case meant nothing. Anyone who

has some grasp of the significance of numbers knows of course that .7 and .70 have different accuracies. The one presumably is accurate to tenths and the other to hundredths.

4. *Does the supervisor have a reasonably good background in psychology, including a grasp of psychological theories, so that he can evaluate a teacher's techniques and discuss with her the probable learnings that will or will not result from use of her techniques.*

Illustrative of learning theories is one that emphasizes bonds, in connection with which drill becomes an important technique; another theory emphasizes wholes (Gestalt), in connection with which meanings, relationships, or whole-part patterns take on significance.

In one class the teacher seemed to spend a great deal of time having children verbalize their arithmetical solutions. At the blackboard a pupil would explain 696 to the class by saying " 4

$\times 4$

times 6 is 24 , put down 4 and carry 2 ; 4 times 9 is 36 , plus 2 is 38 ," etc. The goal in arithmetic learning is the elimination of unnecessary verbalization in one's thinking. Such verbalization decreases significantly one's speed of solution. Long ago in the field of the teaching of Reading teachers were cautioned against much oral reading in class because of habits of verbalization which were encouraged and which tended to decrease speed of silent reading. In arithmetic teaching many teachers are guilty of exactly the same practice—encouraging habits of verbalization. In arithmetic it is important that children use correct thought processes, but teachers must be careful when checking on these that they do not tend to

fix unnecessary verbalizations which will slow up solutions. For example, in arriving at the answer to 7 a pupil

$+4$

—

should think 11 without verbalizing " 7 plus 4 equals 11 ."

Again, if a pupil proves 7 is 13 by

$+6$

—

first counting 7 objects and then 6 more by continuing the counting from 8 through 13 he is being encouraged to use counting as a procedure for adding. A better teaching method is to have the pupil first count 7 objects, then 6 objects, then join the two groups and count the number in this total group from 1 through 13 .

5. *What is the nature of the motivation for learning? Is the learning functional? Are needs and interests of the children being considered?*

In one sixth grade room the pupils apparently needed practice in multiplying a fraction by a fraction. They were given the problem of two boys who had $3/5$ of an acre of ground. They wished to plant $2/3$ of this in corn. How much ground was being used for the corn? (This of course involved $2/3 \times 3/5$) It is unlikely that a farmer would be confronted with such a problem. These same boys, the pupils were told, went to a store and bought $3/4$ of a bushel of corn. They used $2/3$ of this amount. How much did they use? (They would not know it was $2/3$ until they had figured it out) Earlier in the school year the same teacher, in an effort to give practice and concrete experience with the addition of fractions, had brought three children to the front of the room, had had each of the three turn himself around by $1/4$ of a revolution. How much had the three children turned al-

together? It is difficult to imagine a situation where any person, child or adult, would ever be faced by a problem such as this in real life. In many school rooms we seem to have progressed very little beyond the far-fetched, unnatural, non-challenging types of problems that characterized the arithmetic instruction of yesteryear.

A teacher in another school achieved success in interesting the children in arithmetic by applying it to the daily concerns of the children. For example, interest was instilled in decimal fractions by asking what was the changing batting average of a favorite home-run hitter in the local community. Or, what was the football passing average of a well-known quarterback on the local college team? Boys came back from military service in Korea to visit this popular teacher and said "Didn't we have fun in arithmetic figuring out those baseball and football percentages?"

6. *What is the teacher doing to take account of individual differences in ability among her pupils?*

In a fourth grade room, chosen at random from the writer's files, the IQ's of the pupils ranged from 87 to 126 and the average arithmetic scores on a standardized test ranged from a grade score of 3.2 to 6.0. In a fifth grade classroom, similarly chosen, the IQ's ranged from 71 to 138 and the arithmetic grade scores from 3.3 to 8.1. Such findings in schools are quite typical.

The supervisor should determine what the teacher of children with such wide diversity in not only general learning capacity but in arithmetic achievement is doing to meet this situation. Unfortunately, generally the answer will be "very little." Grouping of pupils within the class is one favorite device. As a rule, more grouping is practiced in Read-

ing than Arithmetic (though exactly the same argument applies to arithmetic) and grouping is more widely followed in the primary than in the intermediate grades. Too often, all of the children in a classroom are studying the same assignments in their textbooks, which of course is absurd in view of pupil differences such as those given above.

7. *Is arithmetic integrated with other types of learnings in the school curriculum?*

In a second grade room during the morning NEWS period the children were drawing a calendar according to a set of directions containing such items as "Sunday is the first day of March," "There are five Sundays in March." In the Reading work they had such directions as "Draw a dozen eggs" and Color half of them brown."

In a History class a statement was made that a certain prince was 50 years old. In an effort to help the children develop a better concept of this figure the teacher had them compare this age with that of their fathers (she tactfully didn't choose the mother). "My father is 46 years old," "Mine is 42 years."

In a Geography class they tried to determine from a map whether Switzerland was farther north than Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. It was brought out that each degree of latitude represented 70 miles (this was related to a sphere having 360 degrees and so 360×70 equals 25,200 miles, the approximate circumference of the earth). Switzerland was $48 (\text{degrees}) \times 70$ or 3,360 miles and Pittsburgh 40×70 or 2800 miles from the equator.

In a Health class the children figured out how many calories a certain stout boy had eaten for breakfast. Tables were used in determining the total number of calories consumed. The

sum came to 1040. Since the boy probably needed only about 2000 calories daily he had consumed more than half of his needs for breakfast alone.

Statements such as the following reflect the need for teaching arithmetic in connection with other curriculum areas: "over 1,000,000 bales of cotton a year which is about one-fifth as much as is normally exported by the United States, "ranges from twenty-five to one hundred twenty-five per square mile," or "average rainfall ranges from twenty to thirty inches."

8. *Does the school provide the teacher with a variety of teaching aids? To what extent and how successfully does the teacher use these?*

Illustrative of such aids are an abacus, place-value pockets, fractional disks used with a flannel board, measuring devices, clocks, thermometers, filmstrips, motion pictures, etc.

A third grade teacher had many evidences in her classroom that she was trying to teach her children how to tell time. Several faces of clocks had been drawn on the blackboard. One had the hands set at 9:00 o'clock, "School Starts," another 10:30 "Lunch Time," etc. The children constructed crude faces of clocks out of oak-tag paper and turned the hands to various times dictated by the teacher, such as 7:00 o'clock and 12:00 o'clock. Yet there was not a real clock of any kind in the classroom!

A second grade teacher was carrying on a unit of work on Telling Time. In the room was an egg timer, sun dial, Chinese Water Clock, hour glass, a bottle or drip clock, and other devices.

One teaching aid that is often misused is the arithmetic workbook. Often, entirely too often, one can come into a classroom and find all of the children

working identically the same exercises in their workbook. All the children complete the exercises progressively through the book throughout the year at the same times. It would be difficult to find any teaching technique that illustrates more clearly a disregard by the teacher of individual learning difficulties and rates by the children than this one. Such a practice, without question, is a good example of the "busy work" in traditional schools which has so often and roundly been condemned.

9. *Is there evidence that arithmetic learning by the children is adequately and continuously being evaluated? Is the teacher making a practice of diagnosing individual and group learning difficulties and the probable causes for these.*

This question complements the first one raised at the outset of this discussion, namely, whether proper arithmetic goals and objectives have been set.

Much attention has been given by teachers to evaluating the products of learning; too little to the processes of learning. Much concern has been devoted to measuring skill in number manipulation; insufficient consideration has been given to understandings, interests, and ability to use numbers in practical life situations. Much time has been spent on pencil and paper tests; not enough has been devoted to observation of pupil behavior, interest inventories, problem situation tests, and interviews.

A county supervisor related how he had watched a group of five boys in a rural school skillfully work problems, involving volumes of liquids and solids, which were being dictated by the teacher. So he sent the boys up on the road to a watering trough that could be clear-

ly seen from the classroom window. They were given a ruler and asked to determine the number of gallons of water in the trough. After the boys had reached their destination they could be clearly seen gesticulating and apparently arguing as to how to proceed with their task. After some time they returned to the classroom and admitted they had been unable to arrive at any solution of the problem.

A supervisor needs to know not only what the outcomes from arithmetic instruction should be but how can each of these best be evaluated. Effective instruction is possible only if the prog-

ress by the pupils and their deficiencies are known. Is the teacher aware of these? If not, the supervisor should be able to offer suggestions. The kinds of evaluating devices that are used in classrooms originating either with the teacher or the administration have a decisive directing influence upon the nature of the instruction. Sometimes this influence is a harmful one.

In the preceding discussion only nine questions that a supervisor of arithmetic might and probably should raise have been considered. Others could have been added. It is hoped that the more important ones have been included.

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What You Should Know About Sight

PART I

Seeing Is a Mental Process

By ISRAEL DVORINE

2328 Eutaw Place
Baltimore, Maryland

Learning of Skills

IN THE PROCESS of growing up, an individual acquires an ever increasing store of knowledge and is constantly learning new skills. These skills are not limited to performances by the hands and fingers, such as writing and typing. They also include the ability to interpret and respond to impulses transmitted to the nerve centers of the brain by the five senses, sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch, as well as sensations arising from kinaesthesia (muscle movement), equilibration (balance), and visceral activity (internal organs).

Not all of the senses contribute an equal amount of information for any specific situation. If the object's chief characteristic lies within the specialized activity of any one sense, then the greater portion of the information is reported by the specialized sense. For example, learning to read print is a skill which depends chiefly on proper visual performance; learning to read Braille depends on learning with the sense of touch to interpret patterns of raised dots; learning the pronunciation of words depends chiefly on a keen sense of hearing, etc. The other senses furnish secondary clues which help to reinforce the learning of the skill.

Each of the senses thus sends to the brain its own specialized form of sensation. All of the sensations are grouped there into one unified brain pattern which the individual learns to associate with specific things.

When he observes an unknown object for the first time, unless he can correlate the aroused sensations and integrate them in the light of his past experience, he is unable to identify the object or understand its meaning. When he sees the object, touches it, listens to its sound, tastes or smells it—when all of these sensations add up to an integrated whole of something within his experience—the observed object becomes recognized and its meaning identified.

For example, when an individual sees a long, tubular creature, with diamond shaped designs on its back coiling on the ground and hears a rattling sound as it moves its tail back and forth, he immediately identifies the creature as a snake and responds to it with the proper motor action, depending on his past experience with this type of a situation.

Cortical and Sub-cortical Levels

To facilitate the smooth, rhythmic

activity of all the organs, the central nervous system of an individual functions on two levels, cortical and sub-cortical. To the higher centers of the brain are delegated the learning of new patterns of association, the learning of new skills and the acquisition of new information, in other words, everything that is new to the individual. When these brain patterns have been learned and integrated, when the new skills have been perfected, they are then shifted to the control of the lower cortical levels, which do not require the same degree of attention on the part of the individual as do the higher centers.

Lacing one's shoe strings, lifting food with a spoon, riding a bicycle, reading from left to right or from right to left, depending on the language that one is reading, are all performances resulting from direction of the lower cortical levels. These skills are performed smoother and more rhythmic than during the process of learning when they are under the control of the higher cortical levels.

One needs merely recall the experience of playing an instrument in public for the first time, or the reading of a manuscript before an audience for the first time, to establish the accuracy of the above statement. In fact no matter how well one has mastered a skill, when that skill is performed with the full consciousness of the individual (which is another way of naming the higher cortical levels), the tense, spastic and unrhythmic movements are unlike the performance that one is accustomed to expect.

Focus of Attention

Sub-cortical level of performance is outside of the focus of attention. It is on its border-line, the zone of transition, ready to be shifted to the higher cen-

ters, if the need should suddenly arise. This dual function is important not only for the intellectual development of the individual, but for his physical development as well. For example, when an individual has learned to write or to type well, his fingers perform these skills as a result of sub-cortical direction, while his higher cortical centers are occupied with the gathering of information from the notes or from the printed page. Speed of performance and successful achievement are inversely proportional to the degree of dependence on the higher cortical centers—the lesser the dependence, the greater is the performance.

All the stimuli received by the brain are not given the same degree of attention at the same time. One of the factors which contributes to a smooth, well integrated performance of any skill is the ability of the organism to abstract from the constant flux or stimuli, at the appropriate moment, only those stimuli which need to be brought to the foreground within the focus of attention. All other stimuli are relegated to the background, either as a frame of reference or to store them for future recall.

Thus, the awareness or perception of one's environment and the reactions of an individual to his environment is the end result of a complex neurological pattern of organization. Its successful operation is predicted on the accurate information which is received by the brain from the specialized senses. Defective or impaired senses lead either to erroneous conclusions or to incomplete analysis and identification or meaning, and to faulty reactions. It is the writer's purpose to describe one of the senses which plays a dominant role in the development of the individual—the sense of sight.

Dr. Seuss



THEODORE SEUSS GEISEL has a special message in this issue of *Education* for teachers, curriculum workers, and textbook authors. His *The Cat and the Hat* has been a sensational success in the textbook world. It appears that he will be having much more to offer in the near future.

Dr. Seuss's name has special meaning in homes, libraries, and schools. As a writer of humor for children, he is widely loved and read.

Dr. Seuss' contributions to education are highly appreciated by classroom teachers. Undoubtedly, he is blazing a new trail in education. It isn't often that a highly respected writer of children's books will bow to vocabulary control and other time-honored rules for textbook writing.

Up to now, Bennett Cerf's Random House (457 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York) has published 14 books which Dr. Seuss has written and illustrated:

And to think I Saw It on Mulberry Street
The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins
The King's Stilts
Horton Hatches the Egg
McElligot's Pool
Thidwick: The Big-Hearted Moose
Bartholomew and the Oobleck
If I Ran the Zoo
Scrambled Eggs Super!
Horton Hears a Who!
On Beyond Zebra
If I Ran the Circus
The Cat in the Hat
How the Grinch Stole Christmas
(E. A. B.)

DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*
School of Education, New York University

FREUD, PSYCHOANALYSIS, CATHOLICISM. By Peter J. R. Dempsey. Chicago, Ill. Henry Regnery Company. 1957. \$3.00.

The author presents a clear and lucid treatment of a subject that has frequently been the object of controversy. As a rational scholar, he presents both sides of the argument, weighs each, and offers an evaluation that joins rather than separates religion and science. After discussing the nature and scope of psychology, the different approaches to it, possibilities of unity and perspective, the author presents Freud's attitude toward religion. In the final section, he tests the results and gives a consideration of the problem of psychology and literature. This is a highly interesting little volume.—S. M. Amatora

INDIVIDUATION. By Josef Goldbrunner. N. Y. Pantheon Books, Inc. 1956. \$3.50.

As its subtitle indicates, this is a study of the depth psychology of Jung. The author succeeds remarkably in presenting the ideas of the great psychologist in a clear and understandable way. Depth psychology aims at a process of self-realization, whereby the forces of the conscious and unconscious life of the individual are adjusted so as to realize to the fullest the true life of the whole man.
S. M. Amatora

A LITTLE LEARNING. By Walter Handren, S. J. Westminster, Maryland: Newman Press. 1956. Pp. vii + 216. \$3.50.

Deploing the futility of the half-educated man, the author takes the title of his book from Pope's *Essay on Criticism*. He endeavors to help the student find out what education really is and what it is that he is supposed to respond to. Deploing the fact that education is primarily concerned with the making of a *complete man*, yet, in our country, (deplores the author) it seems to be used as a means to everything but that, this little vol-

ume is divided into three sections: the first gives a survey of the entire scholastic background against which the student will pursue his work; the second part discusses the six essential areas of human life which are the objectives of educational training; the third part attempts to apply to the concrete everyday study activities the general principles inculcated in the two preceding sections. This little volume is highly recommended not only to students, but also to teachers, to parents, and to all those interested in education generally.—S. M. Amatora

THE PATIENT SPEAKS. By Harold A. Abramson. N. Y. Vantage Press. 1956. \$3.50.

This volume tells of an allergic young woman troubled by a deep-seated mother-daughter relationship. The interviews between the physician and the patient covered a period of several years. Relevant parts from the recordings of these interviews were used to form the content of this book. The author does not dramatize. He does not embellish. He simply lets the patient speak. His own interpolated remarks are brief and concise.
S. M. Amatora

PATTERNS OF ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR. By Max L. Hutt and Robert G. Gibby. Boston, Massachusetts. Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1957. \$6.00.

In contrast to the usual type of text book in abnormal psychology, the authors of the present volume attempt to present the major findings in the whole area of human behavior, especially in those areas of behavior that differ from the normal. The material is presented in developmental sequence. This makes for a better understanding of deviant adult behavior in terms of crystalizations of what has gone before, accentuated by the development of the human organism and reinforced by learning experiences.—S. M. Amatora

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Sputnick and the Three R's

What Do Parents Say About Experimentation
In Our Schools?

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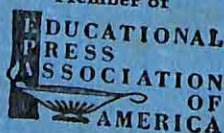
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CITIZENS AND THEIR SCHOOLS

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EDUCATION

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No. 7

Conflicts Can Be Solved

By DR. ROBERT A. SKAIFE

Executive Secretary

Affiliated Teacher Organizations of Los Angeles

THE KIND OF citizen you are determines to a great extent the attitude you have toward your public schools. If you have children in school and you participate in PTA activities or other school-community programs, the chances are good that you will not readily condemn current methods of teaching. Why? Because you know your children's teachers to be well-trained, competent persons, and you respect their ability to use methods which have proved to be sound. If these teachers were incompetent, you and other citizens would have taken steps to correct the situation.

That fact that you regard yourself as a supporter of the schools in your town does not mean that you surrender your right to criticize. Certainly there should be many opportunities for you to sit down with educators and express your point of view. Knowing these teachers as persons, however, you respect their opinions.

This somewhat idyllic picture contrasts sharply with the situation which prevails in many communities today. There are people who approve in general the program of instruction, the methods of teaching used, and the quality of instruction in the local schools. There are others who are lukewarm in

their approval of the schools. There are some people who believe that the schools are inferior in quality, and a few among these who vigorously assail the schools for what they regard as shortcomings. Only a very small minority opposes public education in general.

But this description is not unusual. It is desirable for progress in education that differences of opinion be expressed. It would be less nerve-wracking if the differences could be expressed calmly, but that is asking almost too much of human nature. In any case, a certain amount of conflict is desirable.

Much of the conflict in education today is an outgrowth of forces which collided years ago. There are many ways to define the opposing sides, but it is nearly impossible to do so without offending individuals. Arbitrarily assigning individuals with many shades of opinion to one or the other of two groups is artificial. For purposes of simplicity in recognizing the opposing elements, however, let us use terms employed in the writings and speeches of many of today's adverse critics of the schools. They describe the conflict as essentially one between the "scholars" and the "educationists."

Basically, the "scholar" group leans strongly to a relatively fixed program of

studies with a highly selective content which it believes is best suited to "train the mind." Some reflection of this pattern of thinking appears in the advocacy of the "Great Books." Underlying much of this thinking is the assumption that any child, given sufficient time, can attain certain fixed standards of achievement. The stress is on the academic subjects with other areas of learning, such as vocational training, subordinated to the "fundamental purpose of intellectual discipline." Activities which promote social adjustment should be relegated to a secondary role of importance. One finds these advocates laying great stress on "fundamentals," "basic education," and "intellectual discipline."

The "educationist" group comprises mostly elementary and secondary teachers, professors of education in teachers' colleges and departments of education in universities. Capitalizing on knowledge gained during this century through research on how children learn, educationists take a broad view of the education process. Education involves not only intellectual growth but social, emotional and physical growth as well. Research findings show that children grow at different rates. Some are better able to do abstract thinking than others; some develop physically at faster rates than others; some mature socially and emotionally more rapidly than others. Because of these differences curriculum content should be selected with an individual's needs in mind; not all children should be having the same learning activities. The center of attention is the learner, and such expressions as "meaningful experiences" and "developmental tasks" reflect this point of view.

This basic conflict between scholars and educationists has been intensified in recent years. Since most movements be-

gin with extremist groups, reactionary or radical, educationists found themselves being attacked about eight years ago by professional propagandists and others who linked progressive education with Communism and attempted to discredit many of the leading educationists. The profession's answer was to expose the leaders among the extremists and to discredit exaggerated charges. Although most people disapproved of the attacks by extremists, there were many who sympathized with the charges about "watered down" subject-matter, "frills and fads" and "lack of standards." Many of the individuals in these groups had for years opposed modern educational practices in elementary and secondary schools. The attack begun by extremists gave them an opportunity to be heard nationally and now they are making the most of it.

The core of this opposition is formed by individuals associated with the Council for Basic Education, whose president is Arthur E. Bestor, a history professor at the University of Illinois. In a speech before the American Historical Association in 1952, he charged that the quality of instruction in the high schools had seriously deteriorated and laid the responsibility for it on professors of education and administrators of schools. Since that "opening gun" he has written two books and several magazine articles expounding his views. Others who have supported Professor Bestor's stand include Bernard Iddings Bell, Mortimer Smith, Albert Lynd, Howard Whitman, Professor Harry J. Fuller, and Professor Harold Clapp.

This conflict has had some unfortunate consequences. In the heat of contention, words like "scholar," "educationist," "pragmatist" and "intellectual" have been used so loosely and negatively

that one might easily fall into the error of believing that educationists are opposed to good scholarship or that liberal arts professors are averse to the concept of "learning by doing."

In all this contention, however, the scholarly educationist sometimes finds himself assigned in the public's mind to an inferior rôle in comparison with the status of the liberal arts college professor. Why should the pronouncements of historian Bestor on the alleged weaknesses of secondary education gain more acceptance than the appraisals made by specialists in secondary education? A man with a legal background, Rudolf Fleisch, advances an oversimplified cure-all for problems in learning to read, but the findings of scholarly educationists who have devoted years of research to reading are discounted. The basic difficulty is the failure of people to discriminate between general and expert knowledge. It is disturbing, to say the least, to find people gullibly accepting the arguments of a Bestor or the panaceas of a Rudolf Fleisch when conferences with local school officials and teachers might clarify possible misunderstandings. After all, citizens should be primarily concerned with their own schools. It is only fair to local teachers to consult with them before making serious charges.

Even more disturbing is the fact that small group movements—committees on basic education, for example—have started mostly in communities which have acquired reputations for outstanding schools. It is hard to generalize as to the reason why splinter groups spring up in such communities. Apparently many of these offshoot groups dislike experimentation or change—for example, they oppose "tampering with the curriculum." This, of course, results from their failure to realize that the curriculum is

continually changing. It has to if schools are to keep up with the times. Each community where splinter groups have been active is a case in itself and therefore must be analyzed individually.

In one community this past year a small group broke away from a local PTA and organized a citizens' committee for basic education. Charging that "We are paying top prices for a mediocre product," the committee accused the local schools of watering down the curriculum and weakening academic subjects. One member of the committee charged that there was a lack of basic education in the local schools because in recent national and state scholarship examinations surrounding communities had produced more finalists than had the local schools.

When the charges hit the newspapers, the school board invited the critics to appear before it and discuss the complaints. The critics answered that a meeting with the board was unnecessary since the board had the facts or the means to secure them. It was true that the board had the facts, but the facts did not lend support to the charges made by the critics. Had the critics conferred with school officials and with teacher committees working on problems relating to the curriculum, they would (assuming that they were sincere and fair-minded) have modified their opinions. The school system had the facts on achievement test scores, and the results were complimentary to the local schools. Follow-up records on high school graduates as well as numerous scholarship grants clearly showed that the local schools were doing a superior job.

Two incidents show how the critics operated. A special school period during which club and social activities were

carried on was labeled a "frill" which took too much time away from the fundamental subjects. School officials replied to this criticism by publishing a pie diagram with an accompanying article showing that a very small percentage of weekly time was given to club activities. One of the critics, desiring to keep his identity unknown, prepared a questionnaire and mailed it to teachers. Only a street address appeared on the enclosed envelope. Disregarding the fact that the local board is responsible for the school program, he conferred with no board member or other school official. Such an ethical procedure on his part would undoubtedly have been embarrassing since the questionnaire contained loaded questions designed to encourage teachers to criticize the school program and school officials as well as to air petty grievances which would undoubtedly be publicized later.

Like most school controversies this one died down when individuals associated with the local citizens' council withdrew and expressed their disillusionment with the movement. This disavowal of the council reduced its influence considerably.

Fortunately there are, in most communities, citizens who take an active interest in their schools. They provide a degree of stability which acts as a safety valve whenever some emotionally riled individual "sounds off" in public about the alleged shortcomings of the schools. Nothing should be done to prevent an individual from expressing himself vigorously if he is so inclined. He has every right to do this. The burden of proof rests, on him, however, and well organized mature citizens will not allow emotional factors to outweigh thoughtful consideration. During recent years experience shows that those com-

munities having long established committees have been able to withstand educational conflagrations enkindled by a few people. Stability, therefore, is important. It is something which cannot be created quickly. Instead it grows steadily and slowly over the years as community organizations play an important rôle in helping school boards make wise decisions on school policies.

Since many communities are undergoing rapid changes—in some cases so rapid that it is difficult to keep abreast of them—greater efforts must be made to achieve a modicum of stability. In the areas where population growth is sudden, especially acute school problems arise. Newly arrived citizens naturally compare the schools with those "back home." Oftentimes they fail to take into account the differences in the two communities. The one they left may have been a long established community with changes coming slowly. Therefore, to express open dissatisfaction with the new schools is hardly a fair attitude to take. New citizens must fully understand some of the roadblocks faced by the board of education if they are to criticize its policies intelligently.

What are some good procedures to follow in getting local problems solved? In the first place, it is important to recognize that it takes group action to get problems of concern to many citizens brought to the immediate attention of the board of education. Take leadership in forming a representative group or ask someone who has demonstrated leadership ability to do it.

Second, do not organize with the idea that local board members are disinterested in your problems. Remember that they are working people like yourself who are taking on added responsibilities as a service to the public. As

board members they are under constant pressures from many individuals and groups. Approaching them with a "chip on the shoulder" attitude actually creates a hostility which postpones satisfactory solutions to problems. Much more can be accomplished through a friendly approach. Assume that board members and school officials are just as concerned with your problems as you are. Be willing to listen to explanations from the Board so that you have a fairly complete understanding of the problems before proceeding.

Third, arrive at an agreement with the Board as to the next logical steps to take in getting problems solved. If the problem relates to a demonstrated curriculum weakness, get assurances from the Board that immediate steps will be

taken to correct the deficiency. If it concerns a lack of needed funds for classrooms or for employing a sufficient number of qualified teachers, give the Board your support in getting appropriations for schools increased. Many problems can be solved if individuals and groups will work co-operatively with boards of education.

Remember, too, that the organized teaching profession has an important partnership rôle in the educational process. Teachers' associations throughout the United States are increasingly taking a more active part in making the collective voice of the profession heard. Work with local teachers' associations in getting accomplished what has to be done if the public schools are to serve their communities adequately.

BOOK REVIEWS

TEACHING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Marie A. Mehl, Hubert H. Mills, and Harl R. Douglass. N. Y. Ronald Press. 1958. \$5.75

This is a second edition of the now popular, "Mehl-Mills-Douglass" text that has been widely adopted and as widely acclaimed by those who teach the major courses in elementary education and teacher education. The volume is a comprehensive approach to the theory and practice of elementary education. Emphasis is on the child and on his physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development and the relation of these aspects of growth to education. The role of the elementary school teacher is assessed in relation to the factors of growth and to the problems of motivation and learning. The volume is adequately designed for use as a classroom text. It is up-to-date, flexible, and sound in the light of tested research.—Paul Zankowich

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF CAREERS. By Donald E. Super. N. Y. Harpers. 1958. \$5.75.

Quantities of data have been collected during the past ten and more years on the nature of work and career patterns and their social implications. In this timely and comprehensive volume, Donald Super considers the nature of work. He analyzes the reasons why people seek certain occupations and he identifies the problems they face in entering and adjusting to the work situation. The whole concept of careers is considered from the economic, social, psychological and educational points of view. The value and influence of aptitude testing and of the vocational guidance process are treated in great detail.

—William P. Sears

Improvement of Instruction*

Honorable GEORGE M. LEADER
Governor of Pennsylvania

I HAVE NO idea how many educational conferences you and I have attended in our lifetimes. It would be pointless to count them. But today we are opening the Conference on Improvement of Instruction in Pennsylvania Schools; and I cannot help believing that of all the meetings, discussions, and conferences in our total experience, none holds greater promise of solid accomplishment than the one we now begin. This Conference will be no mere academic exercise.

There are nearly 300 of you—classroom teachers, school administrators, college presidents, elected public officials, editors, business executives. Many of you are members of the Commissions on Public and Higher Education, or of the State Council of Education. But all of you have a common purpose in coming here: you know that the quality of education in Pennsylvania schools must be improved. Because each of you is in some way distinguished for your work and interest in educating our children better, you came here to contribute your ideas on how the Commonwealth should go about it.

This Conference is timely. Education in the United States has needed a basic reappraisal since the end of World War II. The launching of the Russian

Sputniks has proved to us that this reappraisal can be delayed no longer.

This will be a hard-working Conference. You are asked to discuss, consider, and recommend solutions to educational problems that range throughout the vast and complex structure of our school system, from kindergarten through our teachers' colleges. Specifically, you are asked to examine and appraise no fewer than fourteen major issues, having to do with the teaching of mathematics and science, English, history, and foreign languages, the identification and guidance of mentally superior children, adult education, instruction through newly-devised audio visual aids, and school administration. All of this you are asked to consider in four workshop sessions totalling nine and a half hours.

Do not be dismayed. The Department of Public Instruction does not expect you to arrive at conclusive, all-resolving answers in a mere day and a half. What it does want to know is this: Where must we begin? In what direction must education move if Pennsylvania, as part of the Nation, is to respond to the challenge of these critical times?

We want to know what you think. We want you to help set up new guideposts. There can be little worthwhile action taken on any of these educational problems—either at the local or State level—until a representative body, such

*Governor Leader's challenging address was made at the opening session of Governor's Conference on Improvement of Instruction in Pennsylvania schools, January 28, 1958. Governor Leader planned to be an educator, having received his Bachelors degree in Education from the School of Education of the University of Pennsylvania.

as yours, voices its opinions and makes its recommendations.

Personally, I can do no more than guess the kind of action this Conference will suggest. But I hope you will come up with ideas for increasing our leadership at the State level.

Traditionally, the Commonwealth's contribution to local school districts has been almost exclusively financial. Its success has, therefore, been more quantitative than qualitative. Hardly ever has it ventured boldly into the realm of quality in the classroom.

In the rôle of builder, the Commonwealth has acted with great effectiveness. During the past ten years we have gone into a school construction program that is probably unequalled by any other state in the Union. Fourteen hundred school building projects have either been completed, or are now under way, since 1947. These projects will eventually cost the taxpayers of Pennsylvania more than a billion dollars. The money will come from taxes paid at the local and the State levels. As a result of our school building program, hundreds of thousands of our children are now going to school in modern, comfortable facilities.

At least half the cost of building these schools is borne by the State. By the same token, the Commonwealth has contributed substantial sums to the consolidation of school districts into larger, more economical administrative units. In so doing, it has trimmed the number of school districts by more than 200.

Thirty years ago only one child in eleven received transportation between home and school. Today one child in three rides the familiar yellow buses. Two-thirds of the cost of this program is paid for by the Commonwealth.

Within the past three years the Commonwealth has set up hundreds of spe-

cial classes to educate those children who could not otherwise attend regular school because of a physical or mental handicap. And to maintain this important—and long overdue—program, the last General Assembly appropriated more than \$12 million.

Teachers' salaries have been raised to fairer levels. They are now set at a legal minimum of \$3400 for the coming school year, and increase with seniority. To assist school districts in maintaining these salary levels, and to pay for the additional costs of instruction, the General Assembly appropriated more than \$524 million for the present biennium.

All in all, therefore, the Commonwealth's attitude toward the material needs of education has, in the vast majority of cases, been one of generosity and support. But while all of us, whether at the State or local levels, have exerted ourselves to supply our children with good schools, better paid teachers, and the educational equipment good schools and teachers require, we have not done enough in improving the quality of the education our children receive in those schools.

Certainly, since the end of World War II the United States has risen to a position of world prominence unparalleled in history. But for every champion there is a challenger. The events of the past few months have made it clear that the Soviet Union is a dangerous and capable challenger to America's world leadership. Awakened to the harsh realities of this competition by proof of Russia's scientific accomplishment, an alarmed Nation has echoed with ringing demands for action in every part of our society—science, industry, government, and most particularly, education.

It is no longer news to any of us that

Russia produces more scientists, more engineers, more linguists than we do. It is no longer news that their educational standards are, in many areas, far more rigorous, selective, and exacting than our own. It comes as no surprise, then, to learn that a Russian diplomat recently told an American educator:

"We are not going to fight a hot war with you. We are going to beat you in the classroom."

We have no desire to ape the Russians. There are too many drawbacks to the Soviet approach. To mention just two of them: we have no wish to dictate the professional area in which each student must specialize; nor do we seek to indoctrinate our students with any sort of ideology. Yet we cannot escape the fact that the Soviet system, despite its drawbacks, gets results which challenge America's political and cultural security. The challenge must be met quickly and effectively.

We would have real cause to worry if what I saw a few weeks ago on television were typical of our educational system. A high school senior was asked by the interviewer to list his courses of study. He named music, physical education, and cooking. Then he added, "You see, I've already finished my required courses."

Oddly enough, that high school senior wanted to be an engineer. I'll be greatly surprised if he makes it. Fortunately, this is far from being a typical case. Nonetheless, it points up one area which I particularly recommend to your attention.

I'm speaking of the need for this Conference to pay special heed to the problem of improving instruction in the high school. I say that because it is here that we can do the most immediate good, accepting the fact that within

three years today's high school students will either be in college or at work.

As you know, Pennsylvania has some of the best high schools in the Nation. We also have some that are not so good. I was surprised to learn that of more than eight hundred senior high schools in the Commonwealth, fewer than a third have been accredited by the Middle Atlantic States Accrediting Association.

I was equally surprised to learn that State requirements for a high school diploma are shockingly few. Only five basic units in the last three years of high school are required for graduation: two units of English, two units of social studies, and one unit of physical education. The rest of the subjects for which graduation credit is given can be elected by the student.

All too many students choose their subjects as casually as they would choose their lunches in the school cafeteria. As a result, too many of our graduates have studied no geometry or trigonometry, no physical sciences, no foreign languages.

It would appear that the lazy, disinterested student needs only two talents for winning a high school diploma: the ability to choose "snap" courses, and a certain amount of patience. The freedom of choice we allow our children under the cafeteria curriculum plan is, I recognize, supposed to develop self-reliance, maturity, responsibility. But does it? Are 12 and 13-year-olds mature enough to think of their future careers when they select their courses of study? I wonder.

I do know this: the high school diploma no longer has the value, the prestige, it once had. We shall restore the diploma to its former value only by raising our standards for graduation.

Perhaps we should give serious con-

sideration to a system of State examinations similar to the New York State Regents. For I think it is rather obvious that the American public high school system is actually three schools in one. First, there is the college preparatory school, in which roughly a fourth of our high school students are enrolled. Second, there is the vocational school for those who want to learn a trade. And finally, there is the general school for those who have no clear-cut ideas about their future but do want a high school education.

The course requirements in the first two schools are rather stringently dictated by college admissions offices, in the first instance; and by industry and the trade associations, in the second. But the remaining third of students now attending high school fall into the third category of general education. It is here, I feel, that the level of high school instruction is the weakest.

I do not pretend to be an expert on education, or its philosophy. But I do think that common sense suggests a new approach to the field of general education in our secondary schools. Perhaps we could improve the quality of instruction by awarding the high school diploma only to those students who have proven, by means of uniform examinations, that they measure up to certain State-wide standards.

I ask you now to examine thoroughly whether all high school students require, for their own good and the good of us all, more science and mathematics, more English and history, more languages; in short, a more strenuous path through the fundamentals of knowledge.

All of us realize, I think, that we are not born equal in terms of our abilities. Many thousands of girls and boys now in Pennsylvania schools have been gift-

ed by God with superior minds. These people learn faster, their curiosity is keener, their thirst for knowledge is greater.

We are unfair to them unless we give them the opportunity to develop and apply their talents fully. To regulate the speed of all education to the speed of the slowest ships in the convoy is to discriminate against ability, and to do so to the detriment of society and without corresponding benefit for the less gifted. We cannot water down education just for the sake of giving everyone equal treatment. Ideally, all we should do is give everyone as much education as he is capable of absorbing and using.

It is obvious that we are not doing enough for children of high IQ. Far too often they move through school in an intellectual lock step with the less able.

This is not only unfair, but it is downright wasteful. A child with an intelligence quotient of 150 who is deprived of his opportunity to use every unit of it has been discriminated against just as surely as the child with an IQ of 50 who has no opportunity to learn to the full extent of his limited ability.

We must measure equality in education in terms of opportunity, rather than uniformity. Until we reach the point when every child has the chance to make full use of his God-given talents, we are failing in our duty.

What America needs most is brainpower, and lots of it. We will develop it in exact ratio to our ability to recognize and train each child according to his capacity.

Now all of us know that education depends basically upon successful communication between two people. One part of this couple is the student; the other is the teacher.

We have been fortunate in Pennsyl-

vania that our teachers have been so good. For many years now they have been laboring diligently in the vineyards of education. Most of them have been—and are—dedicated, hard-working people whose contribution to the welfare of our communities has been insufficiently recognized. Only their sense of mission, their devotion to an often thankless job, have compensated them for low salaries and infrequent thanks.

A common, but not necessarily accurate, measure of the ability of teachers is the extent of their preparation. Using this yardstick, you may be surprised to learn that, of the 73,205 teachers in Pennsylvania schools more than a fourth do not have a bachelor's degree. To be precise, the figure is 27.1 per cent. No one is more concerned about this than the teachers themselves. Nevertheless, the fact remains: Only seventy-two per cent hold a bachelor's degree or better. The rest—563 in all—have earned their doctorates.

In the important subjects of mathematics, science and languages, we find that a good number of our teachers have already spent twenty or more years in the classroom. In languages, the proportion is fifty per cent; in mathematics forty per cent; in physical sciences thirty-five per cent. The alarming thing about these figures is not the length of service of these teachers, most of whom are undoubtedly competent and dedicated people. The questions posed to us is this: Where will their replacements come from?

Last year, for instance, Pennsylvania's colleges graduated only 300 new science teachers; and of these only 144 went into Pennsylvania classrooms. In roughly the same proportion, only half of the 5,000 new teachers hired last year were freshly graduated from teach-

ers' colleges. The balance were recruited from whatever sources we could find.

These are matters for your consideration. I strongly urge you to make recommendations for bolstering the entire teacher education program.

One way to do it may be to require that teachers attend graduate courses at Commonwealth expense. Another may be to raise certification requirements—and these, I have recently learned, have not been carefully reviewed for 30 years.

So far, I have pointed out only two of the main problems in Pennsylvania education: the high school, and the teacher shortage. There are, of course, many others, equally serious, equally important.

But I cannot support the theory that everything is wrong with Pennsylvania education, or that our present system should be scrapped completely and replaced with a brand new one. There are some people who feel that way, however; just as there are some who feel that we are all gripped by a Sputnik-inspired hysteria, and that there really isn't a thing wrong with education within this Commonwealth. The truth lies somewhere in between these extreme viewpoints.

Certainly this Conference is not the result of post-Sputnik hysteria. The Russian earth satellites simply dramatized Soviet progress in technological fields, and indicated, among other things, America's need for a speedy reappraisal of her educational system. Sputnik has simply made it easier for us to ask your help and advice in finding out what needs to be done.

Yet I feel that a Conference of this kind should have been called long before today. The last date of a review of the school curriculum was in 1937, and

it was not nearly so comprehensive an effort as we expect this one to be. Perhaps it couldn't have been. Perhaps we wouldn't have been ready for it.

But today we are ready for it, and we intend to use your recommendations as the basis of our effort to upgrade the quality of Pennsylvania's educational system. Let me make one thing clear: We hope you will not water down your ideas simply in the interests of reaching complete agreement. The work sessions you will attend are designed to stimulate your thinking, not to standardize it. When you fill out your response sheets, please give us your own individual viewpoints.

You have been asked to make your recommendations in writing. The Department will compile them by category and prepare them for necessary action.

There are, as you know, three agencies of the Commonwealth empowered to make changes in school matters: the Department of Public Instruction; the State Council of Education; and the General Assembly. Advising them are the Commission on Public Education; the Commission on Higher Education; the State Curriculum Commission; and the Committee on Science and Mathematics. Rest assured that each of these bodies will be brought into action to the fullest extent possible.

When your recommendations are redrafted as the consensus of this Conference, they will be submitted first to the responsible commission for review, and then to one of the instruments empowered to translate them into action.

I think that your recommendations will be of four kinds:

Phase One, those that the Department can put into effect for the school term beginning next September.

Phase Two, those requiring the study, approval and action of the State Council of Education and implementation within a year or two.

Phase Three, those affecting the standing laws of the Commonwealth and requiring action by the General Assembly.

Phase Four, will include studies which will be conducted by various existing agencies, including our graduate schools of education.

Under the leadership of Doctor Boehm, Superintendent of Public Instruction, you may be sure that no course of action will bog down. Nor will your contribution merely be filed in an oversized report that no one will bother to read.

Let me emphasize once again that we intend to translate your recommendations into action. What you decide here today will have a lasting effect on generations of Pennsylvanians. I charge you, therefore, with the responsibility of directing the Commonwealth's first steps toward a new and better way of educating our youth. I charge you with the responsibility of telling the educators, the lawmakers, and the people of Pennsylvania what they must do to improve our system of education. I charge you to be thoughtful, because so much depends upon your wisdom. And now it is time for all of us to go to work.

The Hope Is In People

By GLORIA DAPPER

*Director of Communications
National Citizens Council for Better Schools
New York*

WHEN YOU FACE a crisis day after day and year after year, there's great danger of becoming tone deaf to the whole thing. America went from years of blindness about her school problems to a few years of dinning those problems from every housetop. Now, after the deafening roar of Sputnik and the more soothing sound of our own satellite zooming from Cape Canaveral, there's an even-money chance we might all go deaf.

If all of this recent uproar about education had happened before the middle '40's, the odds would be worse than even money. But the recent glorious history of the individual getting together with his neighbors to solve school problems is hewed out of stronger stuff. Citizen interest in schools—and a great many other things—is here to stay.

The history of citizen school improvement committees is both long and short. In one sense, it's as old as the first town meetings that had education on their agendas. But everything went well for American education for a long time. Too well, maybe. We established the principle of educational opportunity for all and then went ahead and did it. The first real setback for our schools went almost unnoticed except by the professional educators. It came during the Depression Years when there wasn't enough money for everything and schools were among the first services to be cut. Those years were followed close-

ly by the War Years when there was plenty of money but two other factors worked against education: (1) building materials went to war-directed efforts and (2) teachers went to war or to factories where they could earn real money. Many of them never returned to the classroom.

Before the Second World War ended, there were a few men who were looking ahead. Among them were Dr. James Bryant Conant, then president of Harvard University, and Dr. Paul Mort of Teachers College, Columbia University. They foresaw the postwar problems for education and believed that those problems, to be solved, would need a wide cross-section of interest on the part of the public. They went to Roy E. Larsen, president of TIME Inc. and asked him if he would bring together a group of influential laymen to survey the field and see how they believed the ordinary citizen can help improve education.

That group went to work in earnest in 1949 and called itself the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. They discovered the handful of communities where laymen were helping solve education's problems and got together case histories on how they did it. They started a nationwide advertising campaign, conducted by the Advertising Council, Inc., to warn America of the importance of its schools and the necessity for interest in them. They compiled, in the seven-year lifetime of

the Commission, a set of working guides, which are booklets designed to guide citizen interest without blueprinting the path education should take in any community.

At the height of the Commission's work—and probably as at least a partial offshot of it—the White House Conference on Education took place in the winter of 1955. That, said a great many people, was the peak of citizen interest in schools, with two thousand laymen and educators meeting in Washington to pinpoint the school problems and make suggestions for their solutions.

The Commission's charter expired and, instead of leaving a vacuum, it provided for a permanent organization to take its place. That permanent organization is the National Citizens Council for Better Schools, founded in January, 1956.

The purposes of the National Citizens Council are both broad and direct. They are three:

- 1) To help arouse widespread interest in education throughout the United States.

- 2) to provide state and local school improvement groups with information helpful in the solution of their local school problems.

- 3) To help other groups assume responsibility for activity created by the achievement of the first two goals so that the Council can discover and chart new fields of action.

To help carry out those purposes, three foundations pledged their early support: the Carnegie Corporation, the Fund for the Advancement of Education, and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. Since then, other foundations which joined, as well as corporations which realize more and more clearly their stake in education.

But what can never be shown on a financial sheet or even in a report of activities is the secret ingredient in any national voluntary group. That secret ingredient is people. In the past ten years, people have made the difference between good and bad schools in thousands of communities. They have painfully dug out the facts about the schools, including climbing through ramshackle schools to see if they could be brought up to par. They have hired baby-sitters for their own children while they sat with babies of parents who had gone to the polls to vote for schools. They have run the risk of character assassination by having the temerity to run against a political machine for school board office. They have lost business by holding out for what was right for education in their communities. They've spent time and effort that could have been directed toward their families in order to get better education in their communities.

The things that citizens' committees are tackling coast to coast are as many as the problems of the schools themselves. Most of them, of course, start with the tangible. When your children go to school half-days, that's something tangible and you can see it. That's a place to begin. When new teachers won't come to your community because the pay is low and the housing is high, that's something to get your teeth into. So buildings and salaries are two jumping-off places for citizen's committees.

Even on those tangible items, however, the effective ones follow three golden rules very closely. Those are the three common denominators that the Council has found to be present in all effective citizen's groups

- 1) They are broadly representative of the entire community, re-

- flecting all parts of it and all viewpoints.
- 2) *They begin with the facts* and base all their recommendations on a continuing study of all available, relevant facts, leaving their unground axes at home.
 - 3) They are independent in thought and action, but they establish and maintain a co-operative working relationship with the legally established authorities.

In the nearly 15,000 citizens' committees at work today (besides some 40 state committees), the failures can probably be traced to a violation of at least one of those three rules. With all three, a committee is almost bound to be effective.

By the time the Russians started for the moon last October, citizens' groups were coping with the quantitative problems and were already deep into the qualitative. About a year before that, a wave of questioning had started across the country. It was a healthy wave and was not patterned after the battles of the early '50's when everybody was trying to blame everybody else for the schools' difficulties. These new questions were coming from adults who wanted to know—for sure—if their children were getting the best possible education. And so, community by community, they started to dig into the quicksand of quality.

Without minimizing the difficulties, it's possible now to show the successes that these groups had and are having today. Let me give you some examples.:

—In Corning, New York, a committee of six people took a look at their own school problems and then looked around at the whole area. Their own would be simple to solve, but how about the 70 little one-room schools all around the

city? They set to work, expanded their committee to ninety, organized a new school district for the whole area, and built the schools, got the teachers, and transported the children. Result: a better education for the whole district.

—In Volusia County, Florida, there will be a new community junior college opening its doors next September because a citizens' committee went out and worked for it.

—Westport, Connecticut, citizens gave the board of education a helping hand this fall by working out, in a series of open meetings, just what they wanted the schools to accomplish. Their "Statement on School Aims" will be used by the board as guide lines in planning the curriculum.

—Nearby Greenwich, Connecticut, got its needed teachers last fall by having a PTA act as a housing bureau and finding the teachers houses to buy or rent that they could afford.

—Cedar Rapids, Iowa, is above the fray concerning science and math because, for some years now, the citizens have been working with the school board to get the best possible curriculum designed to bring out the full potential of all the students.

—In St. Petersburg, Florida, citizens from a first-grader to a business executive can get help with their reading because a citizen's committee organized a reading clinic for all ages.

These are just a few of hundreds of examples of citizens working on school problems at a time of record-breaking enrollments and national crisis. They are at work from the national level to

the villages and out in rural territory. The problems they are facing are national ones, of course, but they take on different faces when they walk the local streets.

There are probably seven major areas which need immediate and drastic attention.

First, we need a definition of the goals of our schools. Now that we have achieved our goal of universal education through the high school years, we must define just what we want our schools to accomplish. More than that, we must place priority on those goals so that we make sure we are giving first attention to the foremost goal

Second, we must define quality and then go after first-rate schools. Good enough isn't good enough anymore—if it ever was. There are hopeful signs in this direction. Dr. Conant is once again at work since his retirement as ambassador to Germany. This time he is conducting a two-year study of the American high school to see what makes for a good education. His findings will be valuable to citizens working on this problem in their own community.

Third, we must encourage creative thinking to solve our financial problems. There has not been enough money available for schools in many decades in this country, although economists tell us there is more disposable income than ever before in the history of any civilization. Some methods must be brought to the fore which will make available a

small proportion of our gross national product for education.

Fourth, we must staff our schools with the best possible teachers. This is partially tied in with money, but not entirely. Experimentation is needed in this area, too, if we are to increase the productivity of our teachers through more effective use of teaching aids, both human and mechanical.

Fifth, we must increase the efficiency in school management. As a first step, we should encourage our best people to run for school board office. And leading citizens must be ready to give up their time to work on the state and national level, where crucial decisions are made.

Sixth, we must build classrooms that meet the needs of the curriculum. This can be done, with more experimenting, within the pocketbook of a community.

Seventh, we must develop the kind of will we have to defend ourselves. We must be willing to pay the cost—not only in money—for education that we are now willing to spend for defense.

That, briefly, is how we got here and what's ahead. Today, thanks in large measure to the Russians, we have cut in new interest in education. People are more willing to assume their historical responsibility for education than ever before. With citizens' committees working together with educators on problems we all agree are local ones with national implications, we can scarcely fail.

As Walter Lippmann said several years ago, "If we fail, we may never have a second chance."

Sputnick *and the* Three R's

By SILVY KRAUS

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And

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"WOULDN'T IT BE funny if the Democrats came back in just as the world went out?" quipped Bob Hope on television the other night. Such humorous reactions to the threat to world peace suggested by Russia's launching of earth-circling satellites complete the gamut of reactions evidenced by Americans since this historic event: amazement, hysteria, indignation, resolution, and now humor. Humor is always a healthy sign; it means that the organism has recovered perspective and is able to plan its future.

Sputnik and High School Education

Nowhere is a sane perspective needed more than in the planning of secondary curricula which will produce the scientists and world citizens necessary for survival. For a decade many educators and laymen have pleaded for improvement in high school education. No responsible person wants to educate only the superior or forgets that the intellectual child is inseparable from the physical, emotional, and social child. What has been urged is a better balance between required general education courses (science, mathematics, English, foreign languages, history, music, art) and the multitudinous clubs, committees, drives, and other extra-curricular activities for which some high schools seem to exist. Perhaps Sputnik I and II

will speed the day when accomplishment in the classroom is as important as accomplishment on the football field or as the number of committees which a student has served.

Sputnik and the Language Arts

Early hysteria concerning our lag in the race into space showed signs of affecting adversely all secondary school subjects except science and mathematics. Of course, any impairment in the teaching of language would be detrimental to science and mathematics, but this many do not understand, and with some justification. In their anxiety to improve the teaching of the scientific disciplines, some citizens have been heard to exclaim, "If it's so important that our children take science and mathematics, why not drop some English requirements?"

Importance of Language to All Learning

There are many reasons why the effective teaching of the language arts (critical thinking, listening, reading, speaking, and writing) is necessary to all learning.

- 1 Words are symbols of reality; without an ability to manipulate words, psychologists agree, we cannot manipulate knowledge concerning reality. The English classroom should be a workshop in which occur rich experiences

with words. It is in the English classroom that students consider the ideas of others in their own words; it is in the English classroom that students search for the word with which to express their own ideas. Furthermore, a search into the history of "world-words" (*cereal* from Ceres, *mercurial* from Mercury, *tantalize* from Tantalus, etc.); the realization that the word *mile* came into our language with the Roman conquest of Gaul and Britain about 55 B. C.; the realization that vocabulary and grammar change as a people uses a language for communication (*gossip*—formerly a godparent; the verb *to help*—formerly *help*, *haelp*, *holpen*); the realization of the emotional charge which words may carry (I am firm; you are obstinate; he is pig-headed) give students a sense of wonder of and a desire to know the intricacies of this powerful weapon. C. C. Fries discovered many years ago that the principal difference between the language of the educated and the uneducated was the latter's poverty of words and, consequently, of ideas.

2 Listening and reading are the skills by which we obtain all information and knowledge.

3 Speaking and writing are the skills by which we communicate all attitudes, ideas, and emotions. The ability to think critically enables us to use ideas for effective communication.

4 The reading of literature not only teaches ideas and the words by which these are expressed but exposes the students to the human-

izing of the great thoughts of the Western world.

Effective Teaching Necessary

Yet there is another side to our story. There is a second answer to our layman's question, "Why can't our children take science and mathematics instead of English?" The honest answer sometimes would be, "Considering what they are receiving in language classes, they could drop the class with little loss." Classes in which the teacher experiences all the activity while her students wait passively for the bell, classes in which are dissected books which few but the teacher can understand and enjoy, in which writing and speaking are assigned but not taught, in which the generalizations of grammar without understanding are "learned" until the next test, and classes in which the same work is required of all students, regardless of individual differences, could well be eliminated with little loss to students.

Toward the Improvement of Language Teaching

It has long been necessary to improve language training for democracy's children. Now it is imperative, lest a subject necessary to the proper training of scientists and world citizens become impotent.

What is to be done? Let us consider the following suggestions:—

- 1 Consult with committees of laymen in developing objectives for the language arts program in the secondary schools. The recently published Connecticut study of its public schools emphasizes the lack of clearly defined goals. Such a study would, I believe, demonstrate the essential soundness of lay opinion.

- 2 Identify promising young people early in their college careers. Teachers of lower division courses in subject matter areas must accept this responsibility.
- 3 Identification, however, is not enough. Once a prospective teacher has been identified, he should be interviewed by a committee composed of his major and/or minor field, and the director of student teaching experiences. Such screening would isolate the major causes of teaching failures, personality and emotional problems, before the young person has spent time and money preparing for a career in which his chances for success are slight. It is a truism that "Not all good people make good teachers."
- 4 Improve teacher-education programs by stressing content and general education courses. The English major should, of course, take the specialized Chaucer and Shakespeare courses, but he also needs classes in advanced expository writing, philosophy, history, the "classics" (even if he must read them in translation), a foreign language, adolescent literature, the history of the English language, and music and art appreciation. A successful teacher must know so much more than the facts mentioned in her syllabus.
- 5 In his preface to the *Faerie Queene* Spenser asserts that men learn by "example" rather than by "precept." Instructors of courses for English majors should ponder the truth in this statement in relation to their teaching methods and should present

these courses in the manner most favorable to human learning, the very methods which these English majors must use to effect any learning in younger students. Too many young people lament after a harrowing first year of teaching, "Why didn't someone show me how to organize and present my knowledge? All I could do was lecture and dissect poetry!"

- 6 Methods courses should do just that—demonstrate the organization and presentation of material learned in content courses. To successfully use material learned in an Introduction to the English language course, prospective teachers must have practice in the organization of activities through which young people of varying abilities may learn what language is, where our words come from, the emotional power of words, the basic patterns of English, and the many other fascinating things concerning language which interest students when well presented.

Methods courses should afford prospective teachers practice in the presentation of material which they will soon teach. Demonstrating to their classmates actual methods of teaching such things as *David Copperfield*, "Molly Morgan", poems of adventure for eighth graders, the uses of the comma, and the organization of material for oral and written presentation is proving helpful in many methods courses.

- 7 Student teachers must be carefully guided. They are not substitute teachers, sent to lessen the

labors of the supervising teacher by immediately assuming responsibility for the class. Neither are they clerks, doomed to sit constantly in the rear of the room, grading papers.

- 8 School districts should enable experienced teachers to take "refresher" courses for professional and/or university credit during the school year.
- 9 School districts should frequently plan summer workshops and pay the expenses of those who wish to attend.
- 10 The community should continue to improve teachers' salaries, and, equally important, increase the prestige of public school teaching. That such prestige is now at a low ebb, particularly among language arts teachers, may partially explain the fact that the number of young people preparing to teach English decreased 44.7% between 1950 and 1956. Also, poor preparation and ineffective methods often force English teachers to face sullen, rebellious pupils five periods each day. When changing jobs, English majors will frequently ask to teach in a field for which they have less preparation. "Anything," said one, "to escape teaching a requirement they hate!"

Young people beginning a

teaching career often express their intention of returning to college after a few years to procure a Ph.D. and to teach in college. It is not the money that tempts them, for the public schools' salary schedules are usually better than the colleges'. It is the prestige attached to college teaching which lures these young people.

- 11 The prestige accorded high school teaching could be greatly enhanced if teachers were used primarily for that for which they were trained, instructors of young people. However, if teachers must spend every spare moment patrolling halls, sponsoring clubs, working at athletic contests, chaperoning dances, and riding buses to school-sponsored activities, mediocrity in the classroom is inevitable.

To become an effective tool of thought and communication, language arts must be well taught. Language teaching was weighed and found wanting in the 1930's; we dare not let this to happen again, not because of any vested interest, but because we know that we have a commodity which, if well presented, can produce not only scientists, but world citizens as well.

What Do Parents Say About Experimentation *in* Our Schools?

By JOSEPH C. JURJEVICH, JR.

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HOW MANY of us are interested in seeking ways of bettering the educational experiences of our youngsters? How many times do you suppose teachers have heard other schoolmen say, "We have to take it easy if we want to change the school's course of study in this community—they won't stand for it"? Let's look at this statement. To be sure, there's nothing wrong with "taking it easy" in making changes if the saying doesn't mean remaining static. We do need a better definition of the "they" referred to above and of "their" attitude toward change. How do we know what the people of a community think of their schools and of attempts to change the course of study in the light of demonstrated need? How do we find out? It is with some of these questions in mind that the author undertakes the writing of this article.

One can readily assume that only rarely do we achieve a consensus in human understandings, especially when we are considering changing or modifying the course of study in a school. All citizens of a community should be interested in their schools. However, it is imperative that educators learn what the citizens who are most directly concerned with a school's curriculum—the parents of those students who are involved in experimental programs—think

of such programs. The author had the opportunity to find out what some of these citizens do think of such changes.

Not long ago a conservative, small-business, agricultural community in the Midwest undertook a comprehensive study of its entire public school curriculum. The greatest changes resulting from this study were made in the junior high school. These schools were expanded to include grades seven, eight, and nine, whereas they had formerly consisted only of grades seven and eight. The social studies and language arts classes in the junior high schools began working in the framework of a core curriculum concept. An effort was made to correlate and integrate the social studies and language arts and as much of the other subject areas as possible. Teachers were encouraged to experiment with methods and techniques. The students whose parents were polled to determine their thinking about attempts at curricular change comprised one of these junior high school social studies and language arts core classes. These students had one, two, or three years of the junior high core program. Approximately 75 percent of them had three years of experimental study with the same teacher.

The schools have a moral obligation to keep the citizenry informed. Inasmuch as possible, planning in this

comprehensive curriculum study involved the administration, the faculty, and PTA representatives. Teachers' committees met in each of the schools to discuss common problems, and periodically city-wide meetings were held for the purpose of exchanging views and information. Individual teachers sent fliers home requesting permission for undertakings which were a radical departure from usual classroom procedures.* Additionally, parents sometimes volunteered to furnish transportation for student excursions and field trips.

The reporting system was also a means of keeping parents informed. The system's evaluations emphasized student behavior and marks were generalized. To be sure, there was a great deal of interest in the development of academic as well as social skills. Standardized achievement tests were given each fall as a form of insurance against unjust or unwarranted criticism, and to

detect areas of weakness which demanded consequent remedial effort. *Just criticism, supported by evidence, was and always should be welcomed by our schools.*

A follow-up study was made of the youngsters in the experimental core class referred to above when they were in the last year of senior high school. As a part of the follow-up, questionnaires were given to the parents of these students to determine their opinions concerning the junior high school experience of their children. These questionnaires also asked for comments from the respondees. A summary of the write-in responses gives approximately the same picture as that given in the Table below. In cases where the parents answered in the affirmative, the write-in responses endorsed the program enthusiastically. The negative write-in responses usually developed the point of why the respondent felt as he did.

*See item four in the Table below.

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RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO PARENTS

Questions Asked	Percent Answering*			
	Yes	No	No Opinion	No Response
1. Do you approve of the kind of education your child had in the junior high school?	90	5	5	0
2. Do you think your child made satisfactory progress in his studies in the core program in the junior high schools?	85	5	5	5
3. Do you think your child made satisfactory progress in learning to get along with others, (Did he get along with other members of the family? Could he work effectively and satisfactorily with others?)	79	5	0	16
4. Do you think it was a good idea for students to go on field trips unescorted in small groups or alone**	74	21	0	5
5. Do you think your child's junior high school experience helped him in the following ways?				
a. Helped him to learn to make decisions for himself	90	0	5	5
b. Helped him learn to plan ways of meeting his own problems	79	0	10.5	10.5
c. Helped him to learn to choose and take part in satisfactory kinds of recreation	84	0	11	5

* To the nearest whole percent.

** This is one of the activities for which parental permission was requested. All of the parents agreed to allow their children to do this, and this method of making field trips became a part of the standard operating procedure for this group and other classes in the school.

Public Education Today*

By ROBERT HELLER

FOR MANY YEARS I have counseled industrial clients to abolish if possible the office of chairman of the board, which is confusing to employees, stockholders and customers. "President" denotes finality, and is well understood. He is the chief executive and administrative officer. But just what is the function of the chairman of the board? He could be anything from the chief executive officer to the elder statesman reposed in a bird cage with little or no authority, cluttering up the organization. Now I find myself a chairman.

So let me define right away what I conceive my function to be. We have an able president who has served and forwarded our cause for eight years. As his partner, I intend to help as much as I can in planning, programming and policy development. And I know from Roy Larsen and Ralph Gottshall—as well as my own preliminary work with him, that my new partner is not only strong but co-operative. Both of us will need the continued active support of all 84 Council members, and the continuing dedication of Henry's fine staff.

I am no intellectual, which is one of the reasons I am frightened at the job you have given me. I cannot out-intellectual the intellectuals. I cannot, during my term of office, catch up with the people who are "way ahead of me in educational knowledge and pure brains."

But none of us has time to document,

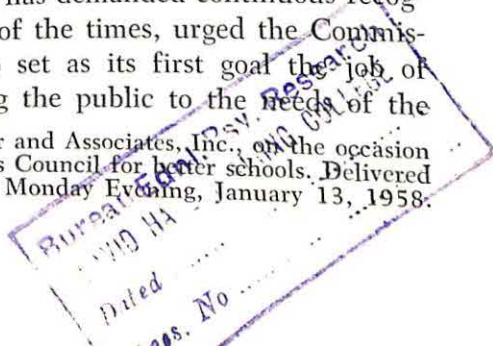
to footnote and to punctuate what has already been spelled out so clearly and succinctly for all of us. We are in an educational crises. So in spite of my own deficiencies, I will do my level best to help in the formulation of a strong, dynamic program with which the Council should be equipped to give leadership in this crisis. All your combined wisdom and judgement will be needed. Henry Toy and I will be calling on you for it. As for me, I tonight pledge to dedicate myself to the kind of thinking that the times demand of us.

Some of that thinking could well consist of taking a serious look at how our past work was done, in order to help us redetermine guidelines for the future. Education owes a great debt to the citizen committee movement. From an idea and a handful of people, it has grown into a great national force. Not the least of its accomplishments was to create a brand new set of three R's, namely

1. Recognize the times.
2. Resist temptation to be other than what you are.
3. Reorganize as the need dictates.

Certainly *recognition of the times* was the thing that caused Roy Larsen and his fellow commissioners to decide that a widespread citizen interest was needed. Roy Larsen, whose success in publishing has demanded continuous recognition of the times, urged the Commission to set as its first goal the job of alerting the public to the needs of the

*Address by Robert Heller, President, Robert Heller and Associates, Inc., on the occasion of his inauguration as Chairman of the National Citizens Council for better schools. Delivered at the Council's Annual Meeting in New York City, on Monday Evening, January 13, 1958.



schools. That is still the first goal of the Council.

Temptation to be what we were not came early. There were many who realized the force and vitality of this citizen movement, and who wanted it on their side in various single-guaged approaches toward school problems. There was a great *temptation* to get embroiled in a big public fight. All these temptations were *resisted* so that we could be what we *were*—an enduring forum for education and a fountainhead of accurate information.

The third R—to *reorganize as need dictates*—really called for courage. What we already had was working very well. Yet, two years ago, we had the courage to reorganize and to change our name and structure, in order to do a better and continuing job. I submit that we will be called on again and again to exercise the same kind of courage.

In thinking about the program of our Council in the months ahead, I have concentrated not only on *our* place in the scheme of things, but especially the place of all leadership, now that the national spotlight seems at last to be on education.

It becomes increasingly clear—if there were ever a time when it was not clear—that strengthening of education is indispensable to the existence of an effective democracy in the United States. There must be a new level of achievement in results and understanding, and more active and sustained public interest in the functioning of the schools.

To have the quality education program we must develop in this country will require financial sacrifices by all of us. But we *must* keep in mind that economic stability demands a rising productivity in education. It must rise at a

faster pace than expenditures. In other words, *we must get more education for each dollar, as well as more dollars for education.*

The urge to seek these added dollars from the federal government, we are all aware, will now be greater than ever. Because national economic and social problems are growing more complex and because our international role will be more important, the interest of the federal government in education will progressively become more noticeable. But in spite of its increasing concern, the federal government must by all means safeguard the right and recognize and foster the ability of the people at the local level to achieve better education through their own initiative.

In all these problems, it is imperative that there be a clear conception of everyone's function in education—parents, educators, and other citizens. No less than anyone else, the Council must have a sound concept of its own role in the important months ahead. The crisis is upon us. These are times when we cannot afford to fail. In his speech at a public forum sponsored by the National Citizens Commission four years ago, Council member Walter Lippmann described the "breakthrough" that was needed in our educational system, and concluded with these prophetic remarks:

"If, in the crucial years which are coming, our people remain as unprepared as they are for their responsibilities . . . , they may not be equal to the challenge, and if they do not succeed they may never have a second chance."

What has happened in just these few years since 1954 has proved the urgency of Mr. Lippmann's warning and has proved, it seems to me, the necessity for us to become more specific about devel-

oping the national will to strengthen education. It is true that much has been accomplished since 1954. It is also true that in many communities there is the determination to improve. But it is very true, you will agree, that it nowhere approaches the kind of will that we have been able to develop to protect ourselves against physical attack.

Events of the past few months leave no doubt that a strong educational system and a strong defense against physical attack amount to the same thing. We *must* mobilize for a striking breakthrough in education. How can that be done?

Now that our Council has gained the respect of laymen and educational and government leaders alike, I maintain that we must go beyond the Paul Revere role that has been ours for almost nine years. We must provoke new and broader thinking about education.

There are seven major areas which require immediate and drastic attention. It is in these areas that we must exert all the leadership we can muster to play a more dynamic role.

1. *Goals for our school.* We have, over the years, arrived at one highly generalized goal that nearly everyone accepts: Every American youngster should enjoy equal educational opportunity. Beyond this, however, there is less agreement. It is not that we do not have goals for our schools. Rather, we may well have too many. We must choose those that are most important and those that the schools are best equipped to achieve. These are decisions, as they always have been, for local communities to make for their own schools. But the goals for America's schools can no longer be simply the sum total of the many local goals. Recent events have made education a necessary field for national concern as well as local. The nation as

a whole suddenly finds that it has a new stake in its schools, in addition to its historic interest in their general welfare. More directly than ever before, it has become clear that the present strength and future security of the nation depend on our schools.

Undoubtedly, it's a good thing that so many citizens now recognize education as our biggest national problem. We are fortunate, I am sure, that the dramatic success of the Red Sputniks shocked us out of complacency, and into a new look at our own educational goals and accomplishments. But shock can lead to hysteria, and hysteria is no better than complacency.

Many proposals will be made—indeed already have been made—for some kind of crash program in education. Some of these proposals, based on sudden but uninformed interest, will be narrow or one-sided, forgetting the real purposes of education in a democracy. But we must avoid the blind alley of a "numbers race" with the Russians, or an exaltation of science and technology to the point of scrapping the wisdom that has come down to us in the humanities.

Nothing could be more unfortunate than to have 50,000 school districts respond to the educational call to arms by instituting crash programs in mathematics and science at the expense of other equally important disciplines. I believe it is just as important to have disciplines that teach us to get along with each other as it is for the peoples of the world to concentrate on defending themselves against each other. We must maintain balance in the years ahead.

The Council's role, I think, should be to welcome the new interest in education but at the same time help direct it toward a balanced approach in establishing educational priorities.

This is not a new policy. We have pursued it all along through the "Working Guide" series, "Better Schools," the radio program and all our informational services. But now there is a strong new spotlight playing on our schools. There is a growing chorus of calls for action. We must therefore extend our informational efforts as broadly as possible, so that national concern about education's goals can be clearly articulated, and actions taken can be soundly conceived. And I add the warning that there is no time to be lost.

2. *Quality in education.* How can the schools do a quality job of achieving the goals set for them? This question was uppermost in the minds of all 1100 participants at the historic conference on the American High School, co-sponsored by the Council and the University of Chicago last fall. And, more and more, it is a paramount concern of our top governmental leaders. President Eisenhower, in his speech at Oklahoma City, for instance, said: "We should among other things, have a system of nationwide testing of high school students. . ."

Certainly, in the area of quality too, the Council's role should be intensified. At the very least, we should continue to encourage and publicize new efforts to set standards for judging ability and achievement.

In this direction, one of the specific ways we are already extending our program is through helping Dr. Conant in his two-year study of the comprehensive high school. I am confident that this study will create new quality yardsticks. But we should be constantly on the alert for every possible way of exerting our influence to help promote quality.

Each of the remaining five areas of action I am going to mention could be considered as a means of insuring quality in the classroom. In fact, if they do

not contribute to quality, they will have failed in their purpose.

3. *Financing the schools.* The United States *can* afford quality education. We cannot afford anything else. All indications are that the gross national product will increase by 50 per cent in the next ten years. The question, then, becomes not *whether* we can afford it, but *how* a larger share of our income can be channelled into the schools.

I am mindful of our consistent determination to refrain from taking sides on the controversial issue of federal aid. But as a freshman chairman I am going to be brash enough to offer a proposal, for your consideration, which will be conducive to federal *action* without federal interference with local prerogatives. It may or may not provide the best answer. But whether it does or not is less important than that it is worthy of nation-wide consideration that would stimulate creative thinking about the financial problems of our schools. It cannot be a proposal of the Council without your approval, but I mention it as an example of the kind of thinking we need to develop—and soon.

I propose federal recognition of future *increases* in local and state taxes used for schools by giving full credit for such increases against personal and corporate taxes. Today the Federal government gives the nation's taxpayers a partial credit for most state and local taxes by allowing their deduction from gross income. I assume that this arrangement will be continued. I propose, now, that additionally there be Federal recognition of the problem of *increased* school taxes. In other words, any increase in school taxes would be subtracted *in full* by the taxpayer from his Federal tax bill. By this simple device the federal government would demonstrate its belief that education is a priority concern of the nation.

I would like to make it perfectly clear at this point that this proposal would primarily benefit those in the lower income brackets.

I hasten to caution that neither this proposal nor any other can offer a panacea that would give us something for nothing. If the federal government gives larger income tax credits to individuals and corporations in communities and states that want better schools, it still must find the funds it needs to maintain its essential services. That might mean higher federal taxes—but it would give first call on the taxpayer's money to be locally used in the interest of better schools.

How substantial a loss in revenue would this be to the federal government? Well, first of all, the loss would not be sudden or abrupt. It would require a year or two for the states and some communities to take full advantage of this opportunity to improve their educational systems. Second, the federal government would be deprived only of the amount of money lost through increases in school taxes. Third, it would not be the full increase in school costs, because the federal government already allows local and state taxes for schools to be deducted from gross taxable income. Finally, the long-range expansion in national income would provide more tax revenue at current tax rates.

Obviously, in a speech of this kind, it is not possible to explain in detail all the ramifications of this suggestion. But a copy of the proposal is available for study.

Essentially, this is a plan that provides a more *dependable* source of income to give our schools the money they need. As matters now stand, the schools wait at the end of a long line of taxing bodies—federal, state and local. After each has taken its chunk of tax income,

the schools come as supplicants to beg for more from an already heavily taxed public. About the only time the voters have an opportunity to cast a direct vote on their willingness or unwillingness to have their taxes raised is in connection with local and state funds for education. In this situation, the only surprise to me is that our schools are not in a much more deplorable condition, and that the public *has* been willing to vote for school funds and to make great sacrifices for education. Under the new proposal, the people in each community and state will decide how much they want to use to support education, but they will not have to weigh their decision in the balance against personal sacrifices. The pressure to make the decision to raise taxes, when it becomes necessary, will be shifted from the communities to Congress.

As I said earlier, I am fully aware of our Council's policy on controversial issues. But I dare to suggest this kind of thinking for the following reasons: (1) it provides for an expression of federal *concern* on the problem of education; (2) it preserves the traditional right of local decision; (3) it provides a means for greater financial assistance to less wealthy areas; (4) it requires no federal administrative expense and (5) it offers a means for taking full advantage of increasing individual willingness to be taxed for education.

Money may not be the root of all evil, but it is certainly at the root of many of our problems. The question of finance is confounding all our communities, rich and poor alike. The combined wisdom of this group may go a long way toward helping find the best solution. I hope that this proposal may serve as the necessary stimulant.

But certainly no new federal action such as I have described will come with-

out widespread demand from the people. It may be that the Council's role here is to stimulate discussions among the communities and states of all possible steps toward adequate financing of our schools.

4. *Enough good teachers.* It is pointless to talk about quality education unless we have enough teachers of the right kind to translate paper plans into classroom learning. There is compelling statistical evidence that we will not have the trained manpower to staff our schools in the traditional fashion of one-teacher-to-each-30-pupils in the next decade or two. It is also likely that, even if the requisite number of teachers were found, the demands on the tax dollar for defense and other governmental services would make such a program unrealistic. Therefore, although we must never relax our efforts to make the teaching profession attractive to a growing number of our most capable young people, we must also search for other answers to the problem.

Since instructional costs make up the largest part of our educational dollar, it is here that we must concentrate on finding ways to get more for our dollar. We should openly and strongly urge the teaching profession to increase their own productivity through more effective use of teaching aids—both mechanical and human.

You all know about experiments exploring the possibilities of educational TV and other audio-visual materials. You are familiar with the experimental teacher aide programs. But ways must be found to speed up and refine these experimental "starts" so that more school systems can profit from these and other ideas. We have reported them. But apparently mere reporting is not enough.

Some way must be found to stimulate the teaching profession itself to take

responsibility for increasing the productivity of its members. Other major professions have already done this.

If the Council, with its thousands of friends among the teaching ranks and schools of education, can be the catalyst for such a movement, it will have made a major contribution toward solving our top priority need for better education.

One important way to increase teacher productivity is to get utmost cooperation among parents, teachers and the community to encourage—and I do mean "encourage"—our young people to work harder. It is not enough to demand more money. We must also demand our money's worth.

5. *School management.* It is in this area, naturally, that I feel most at home. My whole adult life has been devoted to the problems of management. I believe we will all agree that essentially problems of management are the same—whether in a church, hospital, business, or a school system—because they are problems of people working together. To be sure, we don't have the profit motive in education. But there are yardsticks that we do have. Those of us who have been involved with both business and government have learned that there is a substantial difference in getting effective action on sound plans. In government, there is usually a maximum positive effect of about 30%; in industry, 90% can be expected. But there need not be such a discrepancy in education, if school systems have first-rate, responsible leadership at both the policy-making and executive levels. This has been proved in many instances.

Therefore, I suggest that we can no longer be content with gently urging the public to elect "good" school board members. We must supplement this plea with an action program to convince more qualified leaders of business,

labor, agriculture and the professions of their personal responsibility. And it is no longer enough for them merely to serve a term on a local board. Leading citizens must also take responsibility at the state and national level, where crucial decisions about the schools are made.

Here is another place where the Council's role can be made even stronger—not just through our national information program, but through the missionary work of individual members in convincing other key people in their regions of the need for them to take a personal responsibility for the schools.

6. *School buildings.* The nation has made great strides in meeting the school building shortage it faced eight years ago. We are now building nearly 70,000 classrooms per year, and the annual rate of building continues to rise. Few of these schools have been palaces or country clubs. Most of them have been well designed, functional and economical. Many more classrooms must be built in the years ahead. But I would hazard a guess that if we define clearly the goals for American education, set unequivocal standards of excellence for the schools, and arouse the community will to support quality education, the problem of school buildings will almost take care of itself.

7. *The community will.* It's an old saying in education that a community has the kind of schools it deserves. But too often the community interest is half-hearted, diluted by conflicting loyalties and only half-convinced that good education is indispensable. It takes nothing from the magnificent job the Commission and the Council have done—a job in which I can claim only a small share—to say that an even greater job remains to be done.

Today we have a unique opportunity

to bring the importance of quality education home to every American citizen and to create the will to support this ideal in every community in the nation. One way to dramatize this need might be to suggest that Congress mandate the executive department to make an annual progress report on the schools, their shortcomings, and the new directions they might take to meet national needs. Such an inventory would not only dramatize the issue of quality education, but it would also emphasize that, while schools are locally controlled, the progress of *every* school community has nation-wide importance.

As I look at American public education today, these are the areas within which I believe the National Citizens Council should work toward a dynamic new program that will make it an even more powerful and effective force for better schools.

Like the schools themselves, the Council must look forward and not back, if it is to meet the challenge of the next few years. The citizen movement in education has come of age. It must accept the responsibilities of maturity.

In these areas that I have outlined in broad terms, the great need is for leadership. Wherever we can, the Council should provide that leadership. I should add, however, that this new venture into organizational maturity *must* be taken with the same well-reasoned sense of responsibility displayed by the young Commission under the leadership of Roy Larsen and the new Council under Ralph Gottshall.

For only with dynamism, channelled by the responsible approach of mature minds, can we look forward to entering those new fields of activity and service that the present and future needs of our nation demand.

Ex Oriente Lux

By J. B. TULASIEWICZ
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The "Black" October Again

NOT LONG AGO our friends were accusing us of a "superiority complex", because they could not understand our pride in the progress we have made in practically every aspect of human life. And we ourselves had great confidence that we are able and ready to face any unexpected emergency. This confidence was badly shaken after the launching of the Soviet "Sputniks", and we may say it was suddenly changed into panic and an "inferiority complex." The situation today may be compared to the "black Thursday and Tuesday" in October 1929 when the over-optimism was changed into over-pessimism. But like in 1928 and 1929 practically nobody paid attention to the warning signals. Similarly in 1955 or 1956 we did not want to admit that sooner or later our "first" position or leadership in certain fields may be challenged.

Should We Help Soviet Propaganda?

When it happened that Soviet Russia is "first"—we try through all possible means to stress the importance of Soviet scientific achievement and one may get the impression that our scientists, our technological knowledge are far behind. In trying to find an answer to this question of why we are behind, we discovered that the Soviets have also a superior educational system which much more efficiently prepares young people in the field of modern sciences.

Now we try to learn from the Soviets as fast as possible about their marvelous achievements. Members of the Comparative Education Society are organizing a trip to Soviet Russia where our educators will have first hand "opportunity" to learn about the Soviet educational system. The Soviets now can go before the world and claim—"Our system is the best—even the 'rotten' American Capitalism is admitting this"—and to prove that they are right, they will point to the headlines in our newspapers and magazines. How much damage is done and how much we are losing, we will never know.

Awakening To Reality

The educational system like any other system should work efficiently—and if its results are challenged—it means that the time for a change has come. Our educational system was challenged long ago before the Sputnik began sending its beep, beep messages and there were many who asked for action. There is no doubt that the changes will take place, but we have to guard ourselves from going into extremes and trying to make the change under the pressure of hysteria or emergency.

The Two Basic Problems

In education today, we face two basic problems. One is increasing population and the facilities available, and the second is the curriculum. I shall deal with the second problem only. Referring to

the Soviet's educational system whose basic structure is based upon well established principles in the educational systems of many Western nations, we must stress the difference in the work load both in the high school and the college curriculum. The standard load in Europe is 32 hours covering the work in the academic field. This arrangement allows the student to cover a greater variety of subjects than it is possible under our system. The number of hours itself does not solve the problem. More important than hours is the fact that the students there attend classes because they intend to learn and if they do not possess the required capacity to learn, they are eliminated and make place for those who have the ability. The schools are for those who have the ability to learn—not just the desire.

What Are Our Needs?

Before deciding upon the change, we must first define our needs. Now we are clamoring for more and more modern science education and that means we would like to train more engineers because we think that the number we train now in our schools is not sufficient. According to the findings published in the last issue (December 1957) of the *FORTUNE* magazine our schools are able to supply a satisfactory number of graduates to meet our demand. Maybe it is not so much a problem of numbers but rather the problem of how to use the available supply efficiently. We do not need to make a very elaborate survey of Russian education to find out what our needs in education are and what changes we should make.

The Public High School Program

Today's high school program may be described as the "least effort" program.

The central attention of many students is to graduate with as little effort as possible. Because science and languages require a little more than just enthusiasm, many students shy away from these fields and try to arrange their program accordingly. Besides, the program is so general that it may be called one sided. It offers only a very general background and does not make an attempt to give a solid concentration in certain areas—especially in science.

Examining the high school programs we see that they are nearly uniform—and we who stress so much individualism—assume that one type of high school should meet all our needs. We expect that in the frame of the existing program everybody will be able to find whatever his needs are. It is true to a certain degree that the existing program may meet the minimum requirement for a future education on the college level, but very often it may fall short of the desired level.

What Are Our Needs?

The existing program, subject to a few changes, should be retained and may be called a "humanistic type". This type could retain the general aspects it has today, modified according to changed conditions,—with a little more stress on academic subjects and a little less freedom of "easy" electives. This type should serve the needs of those who would like to have a broad liberal arts education—and who do not have a special desire to concentrate on one or two fields.

The "classical type" of the high school should retain the core of the humanistic type but should put more stress on classical and modern languages. In this type of a high school the future scientists and educators should find full satisfaction.

Here those who have a real interest in pursuing knowledge for the sake of knowledge will see their place.

The "science type" high school will recognize to the fullest possible degree the needs of a modern technological society. This school should stress the importance of "sciences" and should be a starting point for those who intend to enter a technical field.

The last type should be a "professional type" high school. Our society has a tremendous demand for a variety of services and this type school should supply us with highly trained and competent artisans, office workers, farmers, electronic workers and others.

The four suggested types should offer plenty of opportunity to everyone and the supply from each type will be determined by the capacities and abilities of students and the existing amount of different types of high school and not be a government decree.

The Battle Cry

Today's slogan is—we need to change our educational system, but it does not mean we must go to "Canossa." We do not need to be ashamed of our system and we do not need to learn from the Soviets what they have learned from the Western world. It is true that we may be alarmed by the fact that our freshmen in the ninth grade learn arithmetic on the level of a fifth grader in many countries in Europe—but it does not mean that we must ask Soviets to show us the road on which our youth should travel.

It is true that our system has lots of waste, therefore, it is not as efficient as it should be and we should make it clear that the schools are not a place where parents send their children because they do not have time to be with them or

supervise them. We must finally discover that our schools are responsible for education and that they cannot be treated as a substitute for the home. We must draw the line dividing our interests from the interests of our children.

If we remember that most of our children are in schools from 8:00 a.m. to 3:15 p.m. or 8:45 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. it should not be difficult to notice that the children spend all their time in school, because very often they have to attend a few outside activities which are not directly connected with the curriculum but which are desired and required for a general education. It is not difficult to notice that after spending so much time in school many students do not have much desire or time to study at home. They are expected to complete most, if not all, of their work at school.

The students in Europe do not lose their time in "study periods", where many of our students read comic books or try by different ways and means to kill time, but have their schedule so arranged that by 1:15 p.m. four times a week and 2:05 p.m. twice a week, they finish their work at school. This arrangement leaves plenty of time for home work and reasonable time for outside activities. It is very often convenient for parents to have their children during lunch hour at school and not have them back home much before they return from their work. But this arrangement, although convenient to parents, does not need to be beneficial to children or to the nation.

The Authority of the Teacher

An even more important change than the change in structure should take place. We must restore the authority of the teacher in schools. The students

should know that a certain kind of behavior is expected from them and that they should be made aware that the school is a place of learning and not a place for having fun. If they do not act according to what is expected of them, they should be deprived of the privilege to be a student. The teachers should feel that they have the full support of the parents, administration, and society as a whole.

I do not suggest an "elite" type of school, but I would like to see the school as a place for those whose work and attitudes make them eligible for the ranks of students. It should be clear to everyone that only those who meet the requirements may justly graduate—not that physical presence alone is sufficient, and that sooner or later everyone short of a moron will graduate. It should be clear to everyone that school is not a place for idlers and for shirkers but for those who intend to learn.

The Inflation in Education

Today we point out with pride that an average worker has more than ten years of schooling and if the quantity would go hand in hand with quality, we really would have something to be proud of. But how often those who graduate from our schools do not know how to write properly, know little about our heritage and still less about the history and life of our nation. Graham's law does not operate in economics only. We notice that more and more students do not have a proper background and preparation. We speak, write and worry about how to restore the value of the dollar—but we make very little effort to restore the value of diplomas of our graduates. Finally the Soviets are again making us aware that the time for a change has come.

The Changes in Colleges and Universities

The present first two years of the so-called "general curriculum" or "basic college" should be eliminated because the material which is mostly covered in these two years should be studied in the junior and senior year of high school. This way, two more years would be available for specialization.

Those who intend to be engineers could start from the very beginning to study the core of courses needed in their fields. Those who plan to teach could concentrate on the field of their interest. Those who do not want to specialize will always have an opportunity to study in liberal arts schools—naturally also modified according to the changes which will take place in the high schools.

The Extent of Changes

The necessary changes should be made not because the Soviets succeeded in having their "Sputnik" circling the globe, but because we need these changes and want to adapt our educational system to the requirements of our life. The changes we are going to make should not be made under the impulse of political danger. The changes we are going to make should go to the core of the problem—not like the new car models which catch the buyer's attention through the device of skillful face lifting. Therefore, the changes in curriculum should go far enough to be well adjusted to the social demand.

Like any other change, the change in education may hurt some vested interest, but this is unavoidable in the transitional period. One thing must be clearly stated—that is that our schools should in the first place provide a thorough academic preparation, and all the rest, even

very useful, should be given thought after the basic requirements are met.

We must guard ourselves from the temptation to accept the principles of accelerated education where it would be possible to process graduates at a faster rate than usual because they show a higher I. Q., or can pass a standardized test. In the process of education also a process of growth is involved. There are human minds which are able to absorb certain principles faster than others and then apply them with success later on. But they are in the minority which easily may be recognized within the frame of a regular curriculum.

We recognized the principle that education, up to the college level, should be free. Why not go one step farther and say that all those who are college material should not be barred from a college because their financial condition does not allow them to enter the rank of college students. We have thousands of students in colleges who support themselves working at the same time as they study. To me, this arrangement looks like a waste of opportunity. Students in college should spend their time at study—if they work and make satisfactory progress, and most of them do, that means they would be able to make a still better progress in the field they study if their minds were freed from financial burdens.

The solution is quite simple. Each institution should give scholarships to those who deserve, covering not only tuition, but other expenses as well. The

scholarship should be a sort of loan which a student will start to repay as soon as he is employed. To create such a program, a beginning investment would be required which easily may be created by private and public supported institutions. Once created, it would not require additional investment because the repayments will provide the basic future needs. The growth factor must be recognized which generally would not be any significant problem. In this way, the door to higher education would be wide open to everyone who has a desire to study and at the same time has the required qualities. Thousands of individuals will avoid frustration and the nation will gain.

Solving the problems of structure and curriculum would ease, to a great degree, the problem of available facilities. If we have in our schools only those who have the right to be there, we will discover that we have much more available facilities than we think we have. Our schools today are overcrowded mostly because the allocation of our resources is arranged in the most inefficient way imaginable. It does not mean that we do not need more—it means that the facilities we have are not put to the best use.

Today, when we have decided that the time for a change has come, I am confident we are able to provide for our needs without asking the Soviets for help. Let them take care of their needs and we will take care of ours.

Education *in a* Divided World

By ARTHUR K. GETMAN

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EVIDENCE OF THE cold war is clear enough. It spells itself out in debates in the United Nations, in enormous defense budgets, in economic aid to our friends, and in the potential tragedies of thermo-nuclear bombs. It is building up a devastating impact on the free way of life. In essence, we are in a life and death struggle of ideas and basic human values.

The Communists have made amazing gains, to date, chiefly because of their beliefs and *why* they hold them. They have an unreserved dedication to a world conquest which in diverse ways will destroy the free way of life everywhere. Their sweep over large areas of the earth, their growth in technology, their productive expansion in materials of war and their training of engineers and scientists are widely publicized. But, within the decade, without doubt the greatest menace of all to freedom, is the well planned and presently affect programs of education to reach all the people and to expand every means of spreading their ideology over the entire world.

Education as a Weapon

Education has become their foremost and most dynamic weapon of the cold war. This places before the Free World a vital challenge. More than half of the Communists of the Free World are in France and Italy. If one of them should go communist, there would be a split in Europe and England would be

threatened. Finally, the United States may be well nigh alone against the expanding empire. Such expansion is part of their plan for world conquest. What we in America and elsewhere in the Free World stand for must be considered with reference to at least three basic issues; opposing views of history, the Judaic-Christian heritage and the freedom of conscience. Let us examine these issues briefly:

History: Free people hold that the means to achieve worthy ends must conform to clearly defined moral standards and ideals of the spirit. Ideas and ideals determine history. Clear reasoning and steadfast convictions can change the course of history. Men thinking, feeling and acting for themselves can create social, economic and civic institutions to conform to moral and spiritual values. In sharp contrast the Communist view is that history is molded by material and economic forces; it is impossible for men to alter these influences. They hold that the "classless society" is their pre-ordained way of directing these impersonal forces. They believe that the end justifies the means and therefore any and all means may be used to serve the party.

Our heritage: We have always been a religious people. Our forebears forged an inextricable linkage between freedom and religion. Their convictions put meaning into history—freedom under God, the dignity and rights of each personality, the fraternity of the human

family, and the fatherhood of God. The kind of freedom they wanted could not be had unless those who shared in it had the qualities of self-reliance, self-restraint, and self sacrifice. They held that the our "inalienable rights" came not from the assembled representatives of the people, but from God; those who lived under these blessings were accountable to him who gave them. In their wisdom they proclaimed God's place in the social, civic and economic affairs of the nation.

The Rôle of Values

These moral and spiritual values were not separate traits, to be taught and isolated from one another. Rather they were part of a great cultural and traditional heritage, profoundly rooted in Judaic-Christian faith and hope. As these enduring values have flowered in Western Civilization they have embodied not simply loyalty to worthy purposes, but an enduring loyalty to God. When Benjamin Franklin asked Voltaire to bless his grandson, the great philosopher bent over the lad and declared, "Never forget two words—God and Liberty." Indeed, America was derived from a spiritual origin and a spiritual destiny.

Man's Dignity Denied

Communism denies the worth and dignity of the individual. Men are creatures of material forces, and their lives have only such meaning as the State shall determine. God-given natural rights do not exist for the individual. Since the Communist rejects the reality of God and substitutes the reality of matter and material forces, there is no fixed morality except that which the party establishes.

A free Conscience: What a compass

is to a mariner, conscience is to an individual. Free people believe that conscientious decisions and actions are the basis of morality. Without a sensitive and free conscience the inherent and supreme worth of personality is a myth. The strength of America and of the Free World lies in the collective will of loyal citizens. Safeguarding freedom is a personal trust. Indeed freedom is possible only when persons are sensitive to their rights, their obligations and their responsibilities.

In contrast to the free way of living, Communism annihilates the individual conscience. Adherents are taught that the individual will have no religious inclinations, no personal moral code, no family loyalties, nothing spiritually within or creatively without except that which serves the party. The individual must be absolutely dedicated to the "class conscience". He is taught that he can lie, steal, cheat or murder, and that these acts are not only legal, but that they are moral so long as they serve party interests.

Freedom's Survival

These three issues bring the cold war into sharp focus. Only if our people are given the new knowledge and if they dedicate their minds and hearts to deep convictions, can our freedom be securely defined. Freedom's survival depends on many factors, but primarily upon the vitality of our devotion to it backed by clear reasoning in support of our dedication. Here the resourcefulness and power of our schools must play a commanding role. Soviet youth will surely be even more doctrinaire than their elders now in power. One of our delegates to the recent International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, declared; "We came away

convinced that the Soviets understand us and our way of life far better than we understand them. They comprehend our beliefs completely concerning free men in a free society, and they totally reject our concepts. They are a realistic, determined and dedicated group, presently forging education in a completely controlled and managed society into a major weapon for further assault upon freedom and upon free men wherever they may be found."

The Challenge to Education

Our schools are alerted to the gravity of the forces arrayed against us. They have taken many forward steps in such fields as effectual preparation of increased numbers of engineers and scientists, better training of technicians at all levels, strengthening instruction in science and mathematics, and renewed emphasis on citizenship. It will be clear that most phases of the urgency that is upon us fall within the area of moral values and spiritual ideals as urged by the Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. There is wide assent as to the meaning of these values and ideals. There is agreement that they stem from the Judaic-Christian ethic—the Ten Commandments, the love of God, the love of one's neighbor and the Golden Rule. From these there flow values and ideals expressed in our legal and civic traditions and in the human conscience. They enrich the language of our great documents. Leading statesmen, poets and writers give wide expression to them. Some may reject the sanctions of religion for right behavior; they often cite the variety of influences at work in conscientious choices and actions. The formal aspects of religion have no place in the public school; these are reserved for the home, the church and the syna-

gogue. The school can and should give emphasis to the desires and motives that guide human conduct at the several age levels in forming character. Indeed, this objective is a primary factor in building and judging curriculum and course materials.

Teachers Already Active

Thousands of teachers richly endowed with moral and spiritual stature are already concerned not only with what is *in* the pupil's mind, but with what is *on* his mind and heart as well. They are creating a "tone" in the school environment in which teachers and pupils respond to the values which society cherishes. When teachers guide pupils' experiences and provide a good example, the school becomes a place for the finest kind of living that teachers and pupils working together can create. By living such values as courtesy, friendliness, shared responsibility, tolerance, open-mindedness, fair play, and loyalty to good purposes, pupils build moral habits and spiritual ideals. In those areas of behavior where the school can help pupils grow in their ability to know, to decide what they ought to do, and to exercise moral will power, more depends on real life activities of pupils and on the pattern of conduct of staff members, than on any other practices.

What each devoted teacher hopes for is that each pupil will retain some ideas and values that come from his own critical thinking and steadfast feeling. Moral and spiritual values embody the ability to decide and to act with conviction and stamina on one's best thoughts and sentiments, in spite of opposing events and forces. When values develop naturally from subjects and activities, as an inevitable corollary emerging from

facts and events they will become the genuine outcomes of reflective study.

Behavior Pattern

Clearly the behavior pattern a young person lives by should spring from the principles and values he regards as his own. Personal values tend to reflect social values. Habits, attitudes, ideals and values are the essence of character. Because reliable character shapes proper future behavior, a primary objective of education, on the process side, must be effective character building. The task of public education in a divided world is to develop an abiding faith in the facts and values of freedom, to develop a devotion and dedication to these values and *why* we believe in them, and to develop the economic, military and spiritual capacity to defend these values against the threat of totalitarianism. Furthermore the school community must become a realistic setting in which youth may learn how to discharge their duties and protect their civil rights.

Profiles of Devotion

Deep within the American heritage lies a personal and a united devotion to the values we live by. These determine the quality of individual lives and of the society in which they live. Our present challenge is to make clear to youth, and to their elders as well, the nature and meaning of devotion to values we cherish above all else. Such a dedicated commitment stems from the capacity to think clearly and to respond creatively to the driving power of steadfast emotions. This is a matter of both mind and heart.

Our great documents, many familiar symbols, the words of great leaders and personal study and meditation enhance our devotion to freedom. "All men are

created equal" is the basic tenet of the brotherhood of man. The words, "endowed by the Creator with life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness," reveal the fatherhood of God, and that our inalienable rights came from the Creator.

Our Supreme Court has declared, "We are a religious people whose institutions presuppose a Supreme Being". At the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia Washington declared. "Let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest can repair. The event is in the hand of God." Benjamin Franklin at the same Convention, "imploping the assistance of Heaven", declared, "I have lived, Sir, a long time and the longer I live the more convincing proof I see of this truth—that God governs in the affairs of men". In his Farewell Address Washington put his convictions into enduring words "Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports". Lincoln's addresses yield these majestic words: ". . . this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people and for the people, shall not perish from the earth". And again; "Our reliance is on the love of liberty which God has planted in us. Our defense is in the spirit which prizes liberty as the heritage of all men, in all hands everywhere". At Gettysburg: ". . . that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion". In our time, President Eisenhower's dynamic words bring inspiration to all who live by the values and ideals of American life: "Without God there could be no American form of government, nor an American way of life . . . Thus the Founding Fathers saw it; and thus, with

God's help it will continue to be . . . The path we travel is narrow and long—beset with many dangers. Each day we must ask that Almighty God will set and keep his protecting hand over us so that we may pass on to those who come after us the heritage of a free people, secure in their God-given right and in full control of a government dedicated to the preservation of these rights".

Devotion to freedom comes ringing down the decades in the words of Jefferson: "I have sworn upon the altar of God, eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man". Our freedoms are of vital importance, but of ever greater significance is the desire and will of the people to have them and to preserve them. Eternal vigilance is the only way for freedom-loving people to secure the "blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity". The constant renewal of devotion to these blessings is the price we must pay for freedom, else we may lose it.

Leading religious, business and educational bodies urge the schools to cooperate with appropriate community agencies in enriching the lives of students by helping them to apply the ethical values that will guide their moral judgments and conduct. We have long boasted of the character training that goes on in our schools—and we have a right to do so. People are not good in a vacuum. A student growing up in our school codes of honor, respect for excellence, tolerance and good will has gone a long way in happy and creative living. Such living rests on their faith in the common elements of all religions. It reaches toward the highest code of personal dignity and trust and to the obligations of mutual sharing in each

other's welfare. The ministry of the teacher is to the mind, the heart and the spiritual resources of the student. He and his students are nurtured on a great English literature full of the undertones and overtones of deep emotional convictions of the Good Life enriched by Goodness, Beauty and Truth.

The Teacher's Influence

The teacher's influence is enormous. Often his guiding interest and his understanding sympathy are the greatest influence a student knows. His instruction in the ways of freedom are powerful sources of human energy, ideals of loyalty and the values of devotion to great purposes larger than oneself. "While Communism", declared President Eisenhower, "is, in deepest sense, a gigantic failure", we have its menacing encroachment on freedom. In a Nation under God we may teach that the destiny of man is freedom, justice and peace. These truths find expression in a basic statement of policy in the present series of national-security directives. The preamble includes these words: "The spiritual, moral and material posture of the United States of America rests upon established principles which have been asserted and defended throughout the history of the republic. The genius, strength and promise of America are founded in the dedication of its people and Government to the dignity, equality and freedom of the human being under God. These concepts and our institutions which nourish and maintain them with justice are the bulwark of our free society and are the basis of the respect and leadership which has been accorded our nation by the people of the world".

A Practical Compromise On Merit Rating: Academic Ranks *for* Teachers

By CALVIN GRIEDER

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THE PRINCIPLE of merit rating, that is, relating teachers' salaries to the quality of teaching performance, commands almost universal acceptance. Nearly everyone agrees that teachers vary in competence, and that it doesn't seem just right to pay the best teachers the same as the poorest.

Single salary schedules based on preparation and experience have been very widely adopted as the most practicable method of systemizing teachers' pay, but they are not defended as theoretically the fairest method. Certainly there is rapidly growing doubt about the single salary schedule, largely because it puts a premium on seniority rather than on superiority.

Even the most diehard opponents of merit rating, primarily representatives of teachers' organizations, concede in moments of relaxation that merit rating might work IF the application of suitable criteria could be made objective. They do, however, fear abuse of the rating authority by superintendents and principals, on the ground that these officers seldom know enough about a teacher's work to evaluate it and hence must rely on subjective judgment. They also contend, with justification, that rating must be preceded by the formulation and acceptance of satisfactory criteria.

One popular rejoinder to teachers'

objections to rating is the citing of teachers' evaluation of pupil performance. It is true that teachers are called upon frequently to make judgments about their pupils, and generally speaking the criteria used are pretty shaky. However, rating geared to pay is quite a different thing from a mark in arithmetic or social studies, and comparing teachers' evaluations of pupils and administrators' rating of teachers leaves teachers cold.

One thing is sure: of all the aspects of teacher personnel administration, merit rating is the most discussed and most controversial. At the 1957 conventions of both the National School Boards Association and the American Association of School Administrators merit rating received far more attention than any other single topic, in formal and informal discussion. Scores of articles in professional journals are devoted to arguments pro and con, and to examples of local efforts to establish and try out teacher evaluation plans.

I am convinced that the pressure for merit rating and salary differentials is going to continue and to become even stronger. Regardless of the cost of living, inflation, taxes, and other factors, boards of education and the public are going to scrutinize ever more closely demands for and payment of higher salaries. For when teachers' salaries get

up into the six and seven thousand dollar ranges, as they are in many cities, school boards and the public want assurance that teachers are worth that much.

It has occurred to me that perhaps a practice that has been used for generations in higher education may be adaptable to public school personnel. This practice is the use of academic ranks to designate various categories of teachers. In higher education the initial rank of a beginner is usually that of "instructor." After a stated period of service and the fulfillment of certain requirements for promotion, the instructor is promoted to the rank of "assistant professor." Later in turn he may qualify for the two highest ranks of "associate professor" and "professor."

These titles and ranks, or similar ones, have been used for many years in higher education, both in this country and abroad. While there are undoubtedly some injustices committed, yet the system works well enough to warrant retaining it. At least I have not heard of any institutions of importance which have discarded it or are even thinking of doing so.

Many colleges and universities study and frequently review the criteria and standards for salary increases and promotion through faculty committees. At the University of Colorado, for example, the Senate Committee on Faculty Personnel has for years given much attention to these matters. During 1956 and 1957 three subcommittees of the Senate Committee made special studies of various aspects of the subject, looking toward a substantial report to the University Senate.

Now why cannot the idea of academic ranks be applied to teachers in the schools? One of the drawbacks of the

teaching profession, in my opinion, is that all teachers are known by the same title, teacher, whether they are the best teachers or the worst. In university work, the various ranks give some indication of the quality of one's work as evaluated by administrative and educational officers.

Another weakness in public school personnel administration is the fact that promotion is almost a completely meaningless term for teachers. Except for a change of status from probationary tenure to permanent tenure, promotion usually means a change from teaching to administration. Salary increments cannot be regarded as promotion as they are almost purely automatic. It should be possible for a teacher to earn promotion without changing his career. It should be possible for a teacher to win promotion as a *teacher*—he should not have to move into a principalship or superintendency to be promoted. These are careers in themselves, different from teaching. In higher education the various ranks indicate the state in one's career at which a faculty member has arrived. It is possible to earn promotion as a teaching faculty member without having to become a department head, dean, or president.

Following this line of thought I suggest that four ranks be used for public school teachers. A beginning teacher could be designated as a "probationary teacher," a term widely used now in connection with state tenure laws. This might be shortened to "probationer." The period of probation customarily lasts for three years. At the completion of this term, the teacher would be designated as an "instructor." After a period of further service, perhaps four to eight years, and the satisfaction of established criteria, another promotion

would advance him to the rank of "senior instructor." The final rank, reserved for really outstanding teachers, similar to the rank of professor in higher education, could be named "professional teacher." These titles are only suggested as possibilities. It would be well if in time school systems throughout the land could agree on the same terminology to avoid confusion.

The use of differentiating titles is not original, of course, but it has not been widely adopted. Some school systems use three, some use four classes. Glencoe, Illinois, for example, provides for three levels of service designated as probationary, professional, and career teaching.

The criteria and salary brackets for each rank would have to be formulated and adopted by each school system to suit its own situation, and incorporated in the policies of the board of education. The rank system would not simplify the development of criteria or their application except in one important respect. Instead of teachers being rated every year or two, their work would be evaluated at intervals of three, four, six, or eight years, for example, and each teacher would occupy a given rank and be in a given salary bracket for a period of years. Many teachers would be evaluated perhaps only three or four times during an entire career, as is frequently the case in higher education. The plan here proposed thus affords a compromise between no rating at all and annual rating, the latter being extremely distasteful to most teachers.

It is extremely important that criteria and procedures be acceptable to the three groups primarily concerned: teachers, administrators, and board of education. Enough time should be taken to do a good job, probably from two to three years. One danger growing out

of the current pressure for merit rating is that school boards will be stampeded into hasty and ill-advised action without allowing plenty of time to work out a good plan. Any plan adopted should be tried out a year or two with a view to improving it, or even possibly abolishing it if it proves to be hopelessly unworkable. The fact that some school systems are now operating merit plans adopted several years ago augurs well for the success of a carefully developed plan.

It would be acceptable, I think, for persons to be accelerated in rank if they showed unusual ability, similar to practice in higher education, except for probationary teachers. Each time a promotion was earned, a teacher would move into a higher salary range. Beginning teachers might start at, say, \$4200 and rise to \$4500; instructors might have a salary range of \$4700 to \$5700; senior instructors from \$6000 to \$7500; and professional teachers upward from \$7500. It is wise, however, to provide for reasonably good salaries for all teachers in a school system before any moves be made to provide for salary differentials on the basis of merit.

Two points arise in connection with this proposal that should be briefly noted. The objection can be raised that there is nothing in the academic rank plan that makes it any more objective than any other plan of rating. I believe that it is futile for teachers and administrators to hold that the evaluation of teacher merit can ever be made completely objective. The judgment of principals, superintendents, and perhaps selected colleagues will probably always play a large part, and in my opinion, it should. I believe that principals and, in large schools, department heads, should carry most of the responsibility for

evaluating teachers, just as deans and department heads carry it in higher institutions. The highest ranking group, professional teachers, might well serve as a committee to assist in making recommendations for promotion. This practice is followed in my College of Education, where those holding the rank of professor work with the head of the College as a committee on promotions.

The other point is more troublesome in public schools than in colleges and universities. Pressure may be brought by parents to get their children assigned to classes taught by higher ranking teachers. It must be admitted that such pressure would be felt very much more in a school than in an institution of higher education, where little or no attention is given to this aspect of student assignment. The main recourse a school administrator may have is to make sure, so far as possible, that all teachers are

reasonably competent. Patrons must also be informed and assured that teachers at lower ranks are not necessarily inferior teachers, but that they must, and likely will, earn promotion to higher ranks by completing a given period of satisfactory performance. While it is conceivable it would be most unusual for a teacher of five or six years experience to hold the top rank. But this is a vexatious point, it must be granted.

In conclusion, it seems clear to me that if teachers and their professional associations do not face the problem of merit rating in a more constructive manner than they do now—instead of merely closing their minds to it—policies and procedures for merit rating are almost surely to be forced upon them without consultation. I hope that some school systems will adopt some such plan as I have outlined here, and give the rest of the country the benefit of their experience.

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School Programing *for the* Intellectually Superior

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CHILDREN WHO ARE mentally handicapped and those who are emotionally disturbed in our public schools are now beginning to receive the attention that is their due. Many more than in the past can be expected to become self-supporting, responsible citizens. The work should go on. But now it is time that more attention be given to the children with superior abilities and talents. We need to know a great deal more about these children. But before the grants for research are made and their results published, there is much that can be done to improve their lot with the knowledge we already have.

There seems to be a gradually mounting pressure from many sources to make changes in the school program. Increasing enrolments will increase the absolute numbers of the superior, as of others, and where facilities are available, render special sectioning more feasible. Pressure for more training in science and mathematics is to be expected following the appearance of the sputniks and possibly grants and scholarships will be forthcoming. There is of course, the continuing discontent of college instructors, particularly instructors of freshmen, with their lack of competence in those matters which presumably are taught in the elementary and secondary schools. And in a somewhat

different category, there is an understandable objection to the false conclusion that democracy in education does not permit special programs for those at the upper end of the probability curve but only at the lower.

The problem of educating the superior is not a new one. It gathered impetus during the past century with the gradual introduction of universal compulsory education, for before this came into effect, as a rule only the superior went to elementary school and fewer still to secondary school, and those were the ones who, to put it briefly, were "book-minded." The then current classical education was well suited to many of them, though Benjamin Franklin had had somewhat different ideas. In the 1920's and even earlier, a literature began to appear on the subject of education for the superior with arguments on the virtues of enrichment *vs* acceleration, and a number of administrative grouping devices, and schemes for individualized instruction were tried out, many of which have fallen by the way-side.

Avoid Old Mistakes

In reopening the problem of adapting the school program to the superior we want to be sure to avoid the old mistakes that were made and corrected years ago. This may be difficult be-

cause some scholars with nostalgic sentiments want to return to the "good old days."

In view of the enthusiasm of those who have suddenly become enamored of the Russians we must withstand pressures to force *all* students in high school to take four years of mathematics and science in order to find a few who will develop rocket research. However in many schools the work for the competent in these areas may well be stepped up.

Likewise we must be cautious about narrowing the percent of high school graduates who are recommended for college entrance. For we know that owing to the peculiarities of human growth many young people whose high school record has not been too good "find themselves" in college, and do exceedingly well, sometimes becoming authorities in their fields. And we can well study the cases of students who have plenty of ability and should continue their studies but either do not want to or are financially unable.

And finally we must resist all efforts to undermine the ideals of the American comprehensive high school, the contributions of which to democracy at home and throughout the world are incalculable. The advantages of the rigid examination systems of European countries that have tended to produce an intellectual elite can surely be obtained by means which do not bring with them their serious disadvantages.

What Can We Do Now?

We can do a number of things to improve the lot of the superior children in our schools not only without waiting for the needed research, but even without waiting for the reports and recommendations of our faculty committees.

But we should have faculty committees made up of those interested in the problem, with the mandate to consult with such resources as are available, whether in print or in person. Their work may be discouraging at first, because they will not find "the answer." Educational techniques are varied, and scholars in the several academic fields will be likely to be partial to their own specialties. But ideas that can be used can be expected to emerge.

While the committee is at work, individual teachers can do much to improve the situation. They can do this if they make it a point to discover who the superior are. Some may not be doing the best work in class. One boy, an eighth grader, was sent to the school psychologist because he was failing in arithmetic, and not doing too well in his other subjects. Objective tests showed that his actual achievement went through the test ceiling! He knew as much arithmetic as could be expected for his level of maturity. He was given an algebra book and with a little help went through it in the two months or so remaining in the spring term. Why was he failing in arithmetic? Any experienced teacher can supply the answer: he was bored, he paid no attention to questions that were asked to him, and so didn't know the answers. He fought back against the monstrous stupidity to which he was subjected in the way that amused him, by doing nothing or giving wrong answers.

A second and sometimes more difficult suggestion for a teacher to follow is to realize that the superior children may be brighter than *he* is—less mature, but brighter. This realization should not and need not injure a teacher's self-esteem; in fact it should be a matter of satisfaction. For with his greater ma-

turity he can if he will guide and direct their brilliant and inquiring minds in ways that will be of profit to them. The track coach can rarely run as fast, jump as high, or hurl a weight as far as the college students he coaches. *But he can show them how.* A teacher in retrospect, can well say of a talented pupil, "I taught him all I knew," and send him on to the masters in the field. His accomplishments provide one of the real satisfactions in teaching that comes from the realization that we have contributed in some small way to the success of those in whose achievements not only we but the wider community may well take pride.

Many superior children do not need to be given tests in order to identify them, nor do they seem to need any special program. They get the "A's" with ease, run the school activities, and develop individual talents through private lessons in the arts or through their own initiative in their hobbies. Some distinguish themselves by asking simple-sounding questions and chuckle to themselves as the teacher either gives the wrong answer, or perhaps with a double take realizes the implication and flounders hopelessly about. One such young man of my acquaintance whose father was a professor of history, and who had learned to read by studying the headlines of the newspapers placed under his high chair, occasionally took such delight in the discomfort of one of his harrassed teachers, who "solved her problem" by excusing him from class to read in the library. Any way to get rid of him! While this may not have been the best solution, it apparently did little if any harm, for he later obtained a Ph.D. at Harvard, in history.

But many children and young people with high potential ability are less

secure than the school leaders or the quiet question askers! Their parents may be people who "don't want a genius in the family," and the children may be uncomfortable in their peer group. No one wants to seem to be "a brain." The great American public has been strangely ambivalent in revering its scholars and scientists and in ridiculing "brain-trusters" and "egg-heads." The superior child may feel this lack of security, may want to seem as stupid as the rest of the crowd in order to be accepted by them, and may resent any efforts that might make him appear to be teacher's pet. Such a situation requires careful handling, perhaps with some psychological guidance. This would presumably include (1) participation in sports in which he becomes willing to agree he is "terrible" (if he is) but in which he sincerely tries and asks and accepts the leadership of those who may be of lesser mental calibre but who excel along these lines, (2) removal of the academic competition, so that those less richly endowed intellectually do not suffer by receiving lower marks than they would if he were not there or by unfavorable comparison with him, and (3) a development of a feeling of school pride in his achievements, comparable with that shown those who achieve in other ways.

Providing a Program

The successful programs for superior children do and will, I believe incorporate by implication or by explicit statement such things as have been suggested that we can do now. They will also include a clear concept of what is meant by "enrichment." This does not mean examples for them to do when they probably need fewer. Nor does it mean the acceptance of careless, sloppy work because it is original or lengthy.

The teacher can well have a little secret understanding with the superior pupils that he will be more critical and exacting with them because in college and later more will be expected of them. I believe most teachers will recognize that if this is done in the right way, it will be a matter of pride with such pupils to be given the special attention.

There are many little schemes that would be worth trying out. For example, if there are three or four or a half a dozen fast-growing superior children in one class, what they do in individual and group projects, as well as in their more formal "assignments" can be different—more mature books to read, problems further along in the book, and so on. Or if the marking system seems to present a difficulty, their "A's" (if they deserve them) could be supplemented by "secret marks" (numbers, or letters from the other end of the alphabet) that show them how well they are doing in comparison with each other. For competition is too useful to eliminate entirely, but it should be true competition—among and between those of approximately equal ability.

And lastly, schemes for separating the superior should be studied. This is done, of course, indirectly, in the high school through the several curricular

programs—college entrance, general, vocational, commercial, and so on, though it is recognized that there will be superior students in each. Any plan beyond this will wait for the report of "the committee." But no plan should be put into operation before it has been studied by all concerned, and approved as one which could be used in a particular school. Its nature will depend on the skills of the teachers in handling individual differences in their regular classes. And basically it will depend on the same two principles that hold for the mentally retarded: (1) Can the pupil profit most by being with the regular class? and (2) Are the other pupils handicapped by his presence in the regular class?

One of the great merits of true democracy is that it releases the potential of all its members to make their contribution, instead of relying on direction from a few at the top. If American teachers and parents, all over the country, with the help of such informed people as are available to them, set about the task of providing a better education for the more gifted, they will make some mistakes, but they will evolve and put into successful practice ideas which never would have developed in any other way.

Teaching *the* Talented

By JEFF WEST

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THE DADE County Public Schools are continuously evaluating procedures for identifying students with outstanding talents in all areas of human endeavor. These talents include intellectual ability, scientific ability, leadership ability, artistic talent, creative writing talent, dramatic talent, musical talent, mechanical skills and physical skills. Provisions are being made within the schools to enable pupils with exceptional ability in any of these areas to achieve the maximum development in their special talents. These provisions can be placed under three general headings: enrichment, acceleration, and special grouping.

Enrichment

Many of the elementary schools in Dade County follow the plan of keeping talented children in the regular classroom group and enriching the curriculum to meet their varying abilities. This plan permits the children to maintain their place socially with classmates of their own chronological age.

Pupils who read several grade levels above their classmates are encouraged to read materials which broaden and deepen their interests. They are taught very early to use the resources in the library including the card catalog, year-books and the encyclopedias. The teachers frequently refer the pupils to the dictionary and thesaurus for study and improvement in vocabulary usage. A leisure time reading program is planned

with these pupils to help them explore new fields, develop hobby interests and to improve understandings in human relationships. They are taught how to report on a book and how to evaluate its content. They often develop written reports to their classmates about the books they have read. Advanced texts with special assignments may be used by the teachers working with these pupils.

Pupils who are advanced in their skills and understandings in arithmetic are encouraged to develop original problems and are frequently given catch-problems which challenge their abilities and stimulate their interests. Some teachers encourage the high-ability arithmetic pupil to work ahead in the textbook with guidance from the teacher when it is needed. One pupil made a study of pupil absences and reported it to his classmates using charts and graphs which explained the cost of absences to the taxpayer. Several elementary schools encourage selected pupils to work multiplication and division problems using the slide rule. All of these activities help to make arithmetic a living experience for the pupils, reinforce learning and introduce many of the simpler concepts of higher mathematics.

Pupils who show creative ability and imagination in writing stories, poems and articles about room and school activities are encouraged all through their school experiences to record their work. Samples of each pupil's work are kept in folders and used as a basis to discuss

the child's progress with his parents during regularly scheduled teacher-parent conferences. Through this practice the teacher learns of the pupil's interests, personal hobbies, problems, and other important information which assists the teacher in developing a more effective instructional program. At the primary level the teacher is often the recorder of the original compositions of the pupils. At the intermediate level each classroom teacher provides opportunities for talented pupils to serve as room reporters for bulletin board articles and room newspapers or as editors of room publications consisting of a collection of original writings by members of the class.

Pupils who are mechanically adept are encouraged to assume leadership in the construction of special projects such as puppets, simple props for dramatization, maps and models. Some schools offer an enrichment program during the last hour each Friday afternoon when pupils receive instruction in the use and care of tools used in home workshops.

Pupils who show talent in music are invited to develop their abilities and share them with other members of the classroom by organizing, arranging and directing rhythm bands and toy orchestras. They also lead their classmates in other creative musical activities. Musically talented pupils are given an opportunity to work with an elementary instrumental group. These pupils often perform for school and community groups at various times during the school year.

Pupil art skills are developed within the individual classroom through room beautification committees, bulletin board arrangements, illustrating articles, displays of pupil's work and murals.

The school librarian also provides special opportunities for these pupils to arrange displays of their work in the library. Through these experiences they have an opportunity to develop their expressions of form, perspective, arrangement, balance and figure drawing.

Pupils who display talents in the physical activities are given the opportunity to develop these skills by participating in the intra-mural sports program, rhythmic activities and by providing leadership to their classmates who need practice in perfecting lead-up skills for team games.

Pupils who have dramatic talents are often used through the grades to direct the dramatizations of favorite stories or situations about which children read. Puppetry, role playing, choral reading and musical dramatization are activities which have no grade level boundaries.

Science corners are organized in the classrooms where pupils may display their collections, the results of their work and experimentation. Simple classroom experiments are a vital part of this program. Usually they are developed using free and inexpensive materials. Pupils who are interested and talented in the science areas frequently develop individual and group projects. Resource people from the community are often utilized to present information and to stimulate new interests in science. Extensive use is made of Dade County's nearness to the ocean in developing marine collections of all kinds. Field trips are taken to such places as the Junior Museum, Crandon Park Zoo, Seaquarium and to junior and senior high school science fairs. All of these activities help to intensify and deepen the interest of pupils with a particular aptitude for science.

Acceleration

Acceleration allows a pupil to complete the standard amount of academic work in less than the usual time. If a pupil has high ability, is socially well adjusted, possesses unusual physical drive and energy, and is not challenged by the work offered at his present grade level, he is given the opportunity of advancement one extra grade. Before such advancement is made, parental consent is secured. Experimentation with acceleration has taken place in the Dade County Schools for the past five years. Follow-up studies of pupils who were accelerated indicate that the following criteria will help to identify pupils who might benefit from acceleration:

1. I.Q. of 120 or more
2. Two or more years above grade level in reading.
3. One or more years above grade level in arithmetic
4. Outstanding achievement record in academic work

In addition to these criteria a subjective rating form was constructed using the characteristics of those pupils who, according to the follow-up studies, had benefited most by acceleration. The teachers were asked to rate these pupils on the following personal characteristics: curiosity or sense of questing, persistence, interest, responsibility, physical drive and vigor, ability to think creatively, ability to work independently, health, ability to face failures and the ability to get along with fellow pupils. Sociometric devices are often used by teachers to determine the pupil's interpersonal relationships to other pupils. For the pupil to receive consideration as a candidate for acceleration, most of the teachers must rate him in the top ten per cent on the majority of these personal characteristics.

The ultimate and most reliable of all criteria is the operational criterion. This simply means that the real test is whether or not the pupil is successful in the new situation. Administrative arrangements should be flexible so that a pupil can be moved from one grade to another or from one class to another if it is discovered that the new situation is not conducive to the maximum growth and development of the pupil.

Special Grouping

The criteria for special grouping is about the same as that used for acceleration. At the elementary level considerable research has taken place with the cross grouping of pupils. Studies of this type of grouping indicate that certain pupils learn fundamental skills in about one half of the time it takes the average child to master them. These pupils are identified through teacher ratings and psychological testing. They spend one half of the school day with their regular teacher who works with them in the basic skill areas. The other half of their school day is spent with a resource teacher who endeavors to extend these skills through practical application and through creative activities. Considerable emphasis is placed upon the talented pupils' responsibilities for service to their fellow pupils, parents and teachers. Sociometric measures indicate that personal relationships and attitudes between pupils in the regular classrooms and those who leave the regular classrooms to attend the resource class are normal. Cross grouping under the proper circumstances seems to have the values of special groupings for challenging the talented pupil and with the added advantage of retaining the friendships and normal social relationships with pupils in the regular classroom.

At the secondary level, special grouping takes place in the subject areas of science, mathematics, language arts, social studies, art, band, orchestra, and varsity athletics. An effort is made to identify students of high ability in all areas of talent and to guide them into those classes and special activities which are appropriate to their abilities and vocational objectives.

High ability science students are scheduled in science classes which work with more advanced subject matter content emphasizing inductive teaching procedures with the student doing a great deal of independent research and study. Because the accelerated science program is highly mathematical, these students are encouraged to parallel their science studies with four units of accelerated mathematics which includes advanced algebra, trigonometry, analytical geometry and introductory calculus. Plane and solid geometry are fused together and covered during one school year by the high ability in the accelerated mathematics program. The average and above average students take one and one-half years to cover this work.

Another type of special grouping in the experimental stage at the senior high school level is called a Science Research Class. It is designed for seniors of demonstrated high ability in science. The teacher serves as a consultant and liaison person between the students and the expert assistance which they may need from other members of the faculty or from scientists in the community. All of the students are carrying another regular science course as a part of their daily schedules. Each student is developing his own project and records his progress in a personal log book. A few typical student projects are: a study of radioisotopic tracing of phosphorous

32 in the lipidal glands of white rats, a study of undersea life on a Florida reef, a study of electromagnetic radiation on chemical reactions, a study of rocket propulsion units and a study of the calcium intake and needs of high school students. At least one class session each week is scheduled for progress reports when students are given opportunities to challenge each other and to defend their ideas.

Another school-community project which is in the process of scheduling has been developed with the co-operation of local research scientists. It is designed to give practical experience in laboratory research, and provides the opportunity for high ability students to work directly with some of the top research scientists in the local area. During their senior year these students attend school during the morning and sometimes one period in the afternoon. The remainder of the afternoon is spent in research laboratories such as the chemical analysis laboratory and the bacteriology laboratory at the National Childrens' Carciac Hospital, the tissue culture and the virology laboratories at the University of Miami, the United States Weather Bureau or the University of Miami Medical School laboratories. A schedule of inter-visitation is being worked out making it possible for each laboratory to periodically provide a special experience or demonstration for all of the students participating in the program.

Summary

It is important to the growth of talented students that they daily have common experiences with students of all ability levels. At the same time it is a major responsibility of the public schools to see that rare talents and capacities

receive the proper stimulation and challenge. Some cross grouping in the elementary schools and special grouping in the areas of the students' talents at the secondary level seem to achieve both objectives. The public schools should not overlook the possibility of securing much needed co-operation and support from interested community groups and individuals who are in a position to provide assistance which is beyond the capacity of the schools. The schools should hold to the broad concept of talent which includes outstanding abilities in all areas of human endeavor. Any curriculum innovation which is adapted particularly to the talented pupil must always consider the complete picture

and provide for the total development of the pupil as well as for the special ability. It is important to keep in mind that no administrative device will guarantee success with a program for talented students. The all important vital factor is an interested and understanding teacher. This teacher readily recognizes the tremendous range and differentiation of abilities which is always present even within the highly selected special groups. The enthusiastic teacher who sincerely appreciates the hopes and accomplishments of the pupils will do more to motivate them than any other single influence in the learning situation. Without this basic ingredient, no instructional program can be successful.

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Teachers *and* Home Discipline

By GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS

Editor of Highlights for Children, and Newspaper Columnist

"MY BIGGEST PROBLEM is discipline." Such was the answer by a large majority of teachers to the questionnaires sent to many thousands of them throughout the United States a few years ago. The study was under the direction of a committee of the NEA.

Some teachers are quitting the classroom because of this problem. Many young men and women, no doubt, avoid entering the teaching profession for like reason. Nor is the problem limited to underprivileged areas of big cities. It also exists in rural consolidated schools, schools of small towns and schools of suburbia.

An increasing number of people blame this problem on the milder modes of discipline in the schools. Even some of the teachers answering the aforesaid questionnaire complained that they were unduly hampered in school discipline. Some other teachers just hurled a general broadside at parents. Almost none said anything about the philosophy of child-rearing to which parents have long been exposed.

You and I know that most parents of the children now in school were warned, when these children were mere toddlers, by those who were supposed to know, not to restrain their young children say from two to five, lest they warp these youngsters' personalities and face them with a lifetime of frustrations. Such warnings were spread for years and years in articles in the leading popu-

lar magazines, some newspaper columns—in acres of print; also on the air and from the public platform. These warnings were echoed from the rostrums of P.T.A. and mothers' clubs.

Parents whose children are now in school generally got the impression that they should let their youngsters, especially in the early years, do about as they pleased. They were not to restrain them, but just to love them.

Many young parents supposed, indeed, that if they restrained their tots, these tots would think they were not being loved. But common sense would indicate that unless the youngster is adequately restrained he will not get the love he deserves. The child who reaches the point where he has little or no regard for his parent's control, so gets on her nerves and she so gets on his that there's little time left for affection and love between them. And how can this child then and later enjoy the abundance of love he deserves to have from other persons, even from his teachers?

Paradoxically, the doctrine of restraints-to-the-winds has been generally instilled in the future mothers of America, the girls taking child care courses in home economics in our public junior and senior high schools. Nor have many leading school educators, school superintendents and principals ever done much to disillusion young parents on the folly of excessive home permissiveness in the child before his school years. Indeed, some of them have themselves

echoed the philosophy of home restraints-to-the-wind. You and I have heard them doing so.

However, there are strong indications that many of the widely read counselors of parents are soft-pedaling in print and on the air their earlier pleas for less restraint. Some, indeed, are advising a stepping up of discipline all along the line on the home front. Strangely enough, some of the very "experts on child-rearing" who for years were foremost in telling parents to restrain their young children less, are now telling these parents to control their children more strictly. As a result, many parents, especially those with children eight, twelve or fourteen who have got beyond parental control, are puzzled and confused.

If teachers are going to have fewer problems of discipline at school five or ten years hence, young parents now with babes in arms will have to turn their backs on the philosophy of little-or-no-home-restraint, and to teach their tots at home the meaning of the little word No, as the basis for self-control, respect for the rights of others, and regard for constituted authority.

Having got the youngster well under

control in a family atmosphere of love and understanding before he enters school, parents could and should so guide these children later at home that they will conform to reasonable regulations of behavior at school.

Not only would the teacher then have more time and energy available to do what she would like to do, really to teach, but also juvenile delinquency would subside.

Looking ahead, suppose every teacher and other school official now were to use his great influence with parents of babies and little children. Young parents look up to these school leaders, who meet them informally at the market, at church, at church suppers and other community gatherings. Suppose these school leaders were to explain to young parents how they might prepare their tots now to be good citizens by and by at school. Suppose, as part of the explanation, the parents were led to see why they should control their youngster by beginning when they can control them most effectively.

Of course the writer should try hard to acknowledge respect for the convictions of all who would disagree with the foregoing.



What Schools Are Doing In Aviation Education

By GUY WAGNER*

"Aviation is an unfinished story—a story scarcely begun."

—Earl Reeves

AT THE DAWN of the age of ballistic missiles, earth satellites, and space ships it might seem that the "Air-Age" had become obsolete. Actually, however, there is never any single "Age," for while there may be a new advancement which signals the beginning of another important emphasis, these various ages merely overlap and blend together. Thus, the Air-Age still exists and aviation education in our schools remains pertinent.

The Wright Brothers succeeded in keeping their airplane in the air for 12 seconds during their first flight in 1903, (55 years ago). This flight marked the beginning of the Air-Age. Air-Age Education is that part of the school curriculum that teaches our pupils to understand the story of aviation better—and to sense its tremendous past, present, and future impact upon the lives of all peoples of the world—in terms of such facets of human life as politics, economics, human relations, government, transportation, communication, sociology, and health (both physical and mental). In other words, Air-Age Education is that education which our people need

because once upon a time the airplane was born and man began to travel from one place to another on this globe *thru* the air.

What are some of the problems studied in Aviation Education? There are many, of course, but some of the more common and important include the history of the airplane, types of airplanes, how the airplane affects our ways of living, jobs the aviation industry offers, the rôle of the Civil Aeronautics Administration in air traffic, what makes an airplane fly, what travel may be like 25 years hence, and how the airplane helps us in soil, timber, and wildlife preservation.

Some of the goals which schools have set up in their Air-Age Education programs include: (1) recognizing the vocabulary of aviation, (2) understanding the importance of weather to successful aviation, (3) understanding airplane structure, (4) understanding the place of aviation in peace and war, (5) a realization of the growing interdependence of people through aviation, and (6) a sensitivity to the social, economic, and political implications of current and

*Dr. Wagner is Director of the Curriculum Laboratory, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

future aviation developments. Schools are also trying to help our young people realize how the airplane has changed geographical relationships in terms of mankind's concepts of time, place, and distance; and mankind's attitudes towards waterways, land masses, and land and water barriers.

There are many activities which pupils engage in as they pursue their study of Aviation Education. These range from such a simple activity as assembling a collection of drawings showing principles in airplane building to the projection of children's thinking as to what the airplane will look like 50 years from now. In some high schools technical courses in airplane mechanics are studied and actual flight training is given. Although the emphasis upon Aviation Education on a national basis is spotty, there are probably no schools that do not give it some attention, even though perhaps unwittingly. In other schools, however, studies in this field are systematically planned, being given high priority and vigorous attention.

Just where should interested educators look to find helpful materials and ideas for the promotion of Air-Age Education in their own local school systems? It is the purpose of this column to suggest several leading sources of aviation instructional materials as well as several school systems which have successful Aviation Education in operation.

National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue North West, Washington 6, D. C.

The National Aviation Education Council (NAEC) offers membership at a cost of \$5.00 for twelve months. The services provided for this membership fee include one copy of each book published by the NAEC during the membership year; three previously published books of your choice; a subscription to

Planes, a monthly publication of the Aircrafts Industries Association; a subscription to *National Aeronautics*, a monthly publication of the National Aeronautics Association; a subscription to *Skylights* a fact sheet published monthly by the National Education Council; and monthly packages of aviation pictures, booklets, charts, pamphlets, etc. furnished by the Aviation Industries Association and mailed during the school year. The NAEC lists fifteen publications some of which are for pupil use and others for teacher use. There are intriguing titles as *Flying Cargo*, *Tilly the Tiger*, and *Look to the Sky*. The content makes fascinating reading for an amazingly wide grade range.

A copy of *Aviation Education Bibliography* is sent free on request—also a valuable pamphlet *Aviation Education in the Schools*.

Air-Age Education Division, 200 A—Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln 8, Nebraska

The Air-Age Education Division is now an integral part of the Teachers College Instructional Materials Center. The development of Air-Age instructional materials continues to be one of the major activities of the Division. Included in these materials are such titles as *Our Air-Age World*, *Air-Age Adventures*, and *Fundamentals of Aviation*. These materials have been sent to schools throughout the United States.

The Nebraska Air-Age Education Division also obtains aviation instructional materials from publishing companies, airlines, government agencies and the like. After the materials have been reviewed, information regarding them is made available to interested groups. This Division has also sponsored workshops for in-service teachers. These workshops have included such practical experiences as tours to airports and actual flights. At these workshops nationally known authorities are brought in as consultants.

Illinois Curriculum Program—Aviation Education Project. State Department of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois.
The Aviation Education Project

which is a part of the Illinois Curriculum Program is under the direction of Dr. Harold C. Hand, Professor of Education, University of Illinois. As part of this project there has been developed four important publications in *Our World of Flight Series*. These are (1) Mathematics Teaching Aids for a Stronger America, (2) English Teaching Aids for a Stronger America, (3) Science Teaching Aids for a Stronger America, and (4) Social Studies Teaching Aids for a Stronger America. Each of these publications is available from the National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Ave. N. W., Washington 6, D. C. at a cost of 75¢ each, with the exception of the Social Studies publication which sells for \$1.00.

National Headquarters, Civil Air Patrol, Bolling Air Force Base 25, D. C.

The CAP has produced six booklets dealing with the subject of Aviation Education with a filmstrip, workbook and instructional guide accompanying each booklet. The booklet *Aviation and You* discusses the effects of aviation upon man's interests and activities and its consequent importance to young Americans. *Power for Aircraft* discusses principles which underly the construction of power plants and their components. *Navigation and the Weather* presents principles of air navigation and discusses weather hazards with descriptions of techniques employed by pilots to find their way during bad weather. The other three booklets are entitled *Aircraft and Flight*, *Airports and Electronics*, and *The Problems of Air Power*.

The Civil Air Patrol promotes annually a National Aviation Workshop at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. There they have developed bibliographies, courses of study, and units in aviation education. This workshop is held each summer and is very similar to the one held in Honolulu.

The Civil Air Patrol also has professional Aviation Educationists available in each of 8 Regions throughout the United States. They are on call as consultants for aviation education programs at school, college, and university levels.

You may obtain the names and addresses of these consultants by writing to Dr. Mervin K. Strickler, Jr., Director, Aviation Education, National Headquarters, Civil Air Patrol, Bolling Air Force Base, Washington 25, D.C.

Territory of Hawaii, Department of Public Instruction, Honolulu.

Each summer for the past several years an aviation education orientation workshop has been held in Honolulu, introducing the teachers to what facilities there are for learning about aviation. The workshop is planned co-operatively by the Department of Public Instruction and the Civil Aeronautics Commission. The various airlines and military air services have been generous in giving their time and in showing the group their facilities. These workshops last five consecutive days. The results of these workshops can be seen in curriculum activities developing in the schools. A group of teachers representing various schools in Honolulu meet once a month to keep up on current events in the field of aviation education and to discuss ways of including aviation education in the curriculum.

As various curriculum guides for the schools are revised, aviation learnings pertaining to each area are included. For instance, during the 1956-57 school year groups of teachers developed materials on aviation which will contribute to a science guide being prepared for the elementary schools. It is assumed that the same thing will be done in other curriculum areas particularly language arts, social studies, and arithmetic. In addition, an *Integrated Aviation Education Curriculum Guide* is being developed. This guide will draw together the aviation education activities included in the various curriculum areas showing how they are actually integrated and how they grow out of the stated objectives of the schools. This means that aviation education should become an integral part of all curriculums.

In addition to the above, there have been for a number of years aviation education science courses offered at the secondary school level. These courses

are more specialized, going into technical aspects of aviation. Many of these classes use the civil air patrol manual booklets as text-book materials.

The Honolulu Technical School has an aviation division which is certified by the C.A.P. This division trains aviation mechanics in air frame and power plant with its curriculum based on the civil aeronautics training program. It is a four-year course.

The Board of Commissioners for Public Education has appointed an aviation education advisory committee composed of 41 members. The members of this committee are from various business and industrial firms relating to aviation, the armed forces, the university, and the Department of Public Instruction. This committee will act in an advisory and resource capacity as the department develops its aviation education curriculum program.

Kansas City Public Schools, Kansas City, Kansas.

The Kansas City Public Schools produced a brief Air-Age guide in 1948. At the present time this guide is in the process of being revised.

In presenting the philosophy of this guide the writer says "The coming of the air-age has brought with it a realization that man cannot live in isolation; that our democratic society cannot progress and that the values which we as free men seek cannot be secured unless those values are made possible everywhere in the world."

Thus the purpose of air-age education likewise becomes two-fold; first, to provide opportunity for each individual to discover and develop his capacities in relation to this potent factor of our modern society, the airplane; and second, to provide opportunity for the development of those attitudes which will enable the individual to participate successfully in a society which because of the airplane, includes the whole world.

The guide goes on to present objectives of Education and outlines a con-

tent to be taught and the instructional materials to use in the study of aviation for grades 3-6.

Bel-Nor Elementary School, Normandy School District, 3001 Nordick Drive, St. Louis 21, Mo.

During the spring of 1957, sixty teachers in the Normandy School District were taken to Lincoln, Nebraska's Air-Age Clinic in Airforce T-29 and C-45 aircraft, to obtain teaching materials and gain actual flying experience. At this clinic they heard such outstanding speakers as Mr. Ray Mertes, Dir. of Av. Ed. National Headquarters, Civil Air Patrol; Dr. Leslie Thomason, Cessna Aircraft Corp., Wichita, Kansas; Lt. Col. Merlyn McLaughlin, U.S.A.F. Commander, 2662nd Air Reserve Ctr.; Dr. Evan Evans, N.A.E.C.; Mr. Everett Collin, Av. Ed. Director, N.C.R., C.A.P.

At the present time the Normandy District is revising its curriculums in the field of science, mathematics and social studies, and the various committees because of their varied experiences in the Aviation Clinic has felt the need for including Aviation as an integral part of the revised curriculums. In the near future it is hoped to have a full scale program in Aviation Education for every grade level. (This information is reported to the writer of this column by Gloria J. Fay, Cpt. CAP, Aviation Education Officer, North Central Region).

Wichita Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas.

In 1953 the Wichita schools produced a 16-page mimeographed bulletin entitled *Suggestions for Air-Age Education*. This bulletin discusses "Why Teach Aviation" and presents ways in which aviation education can be related to such subject matter fields as history, government, agriculture, health, arithmetic, science, art, and music. It also gives a brief outline of various topics for study such as (1) Weather in aviation, (2) Aviation offers job oppor-

tunities, (3) Airplanes help the farmer, (4) Airplanes help the fishing industry, (5) Industrial uses of planes, (6) Jet propulsion and rocket planes, and (7) How airplanes are identified. There is a fairly extensive list of films and books for use in the classroom.

Washington High School, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.

The aviation course in this school is offered mainly to tenth-grade students as an elective. It is a general pre-flight course which includes the social and economic aspects of aviation as well as the study of the technical aspects of the airplane. The main divisions are: aerodynamics, the power plant, controls, effects of flight on the pilot, meteorology, navigation, air traffic control, communications, aviation in government, and vocations. During the study of airplane controls some model building is done and during the study of weather, navigation and traffic control, there are a few laboratory problems using weather and navigation charts. Evening tours to the airport are arranged with the weather bureau, the control tower and the air guard hangers. There is contact with a local airplane operator to study the light plane and receive orientation rides at a low cost. Many films are used and these are requisitioned for the high school by the Civil Air Patrol from the Air Force Film Library at San Antonio, Texas.

Minneapolis Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

The Minneapolis Public Schools are conducting an In-Service Aviation Education program on Channel 2, KTCA, Educational Television, consisting of nine 30-minute broadcasts. The programs are telecast bi-weekly and will run through June 5. Prominent guests are interviewed by Dr. J. Hervey Shutts on such topics as: (1) Space and Interplanetary Travel, (2) Teaching Materials for Air-Age Education, and (3) Weather and Navigation.

Other Schools

It has been authoritatively suggested to the writer of this column that the following schools also are doing substantial and sometimes unique work in aviation education:

Aurora, Colorado Public Schools
Champaign High School, Champaign, Illinois

Grand Island, Nebraska Public Schools

Lincoln, Nebraska Public Schools
Mt. Vernon Public Schools, Mt. Vernon, New York

Owatonna High School, Owatonna, Minnesota

Riverside Elementary Schools, Riverside, California*

Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Tech High School, Des Moines, Iowa

A number of colleges and universities have shown interest in the field of aviation education by conducting workshops during the summer. These include:

Black Hills Teachers College, Spearfish, South Dakota

Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa

Mankato Teachers College, Minnesota

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

Plattsburg Teachers College, Plattsburg, N. Y.

St. Cloud Teachers College, Minnesota

South Dakota State College, Brookings, South Dakota

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska

University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota

University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota

University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee

Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri

Wichita University, Wichita, Kansas

*It is the writer's understanding that many high schools in California have excellent programs in Aviation Education. Mr. Earl Sams of the State Department of Public Instruction devotes full time to the promotion and development of such programs.

May Hill Arbuthnot



ONE OF OUR ablest educators is May Hill Arbuthnot who maintains homes at 351 South Greenwood Avenue, Pasadena, California, and in Cleveland, Ohio. She is a prolific and scholarly writer as well as a popular lecturer. Above all, May Hill Arbuthnot is a human being—a friendly person with a host of friends among teachers, parents, and publishers.

May Hill Arbuthnot (Mrs. Charles C. Arbuthnot), Associate Professor Emeritus of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, devotes her full time to lecturing and writing. Her degrees are from the University of Chicago and Columbia University, with membership in two honor fraternities—Phi Beta Kappa and Pi Lambda Theta. Her fields are nursery school and elementary education in gen-

eral and children's literature in particular. Her yearly schedule of lectures carries her literally from the Atlantic seaboard to the Pacific.

Mrs. Arbuthnot's publications are numerous. She is co-author with William S. Gray and Sterl Artley of *The Curriculum Foundation Readers*, published by Scott, Foresman and Company. Her other major publications include:

Children and Books, Scott, Foresman, 1947, revised edition 1957. Brief history of children's books, criteria for evaluating different types of books for children, the classroom and home use of books and the relation of television, radio, moving pictures and comics to children's reading. Extensive bibliographies fully annotated.

Time for Poetry, classroom edition, Scott, Foresman, 1951. An anthology of poetry for children from 4 to 14 with an introductory discussion of the use and presentation of poetry in the classroom and at home. 600 poems.

Time for Poetry, general edition, Scott, Foresman, 1952. Some hundred more poems, with footnotes for choral speaking, more poems at the upper grade level and an expanded Introduction for adults.

Time for Fairy Tales Old and New, Scott, Foresman, 1952. Myths, fables, folk tales, tall tales and modern fanciful tales for children 4 to 12. These are grouped by kind and countries, with introductions to each type.

Time for True Tales and Almost

True, Scott, Foresman, 1953. The realistic story of many types and for many ages, including many complete books, notes about the authors and leads into further reading.

The Arbuthnot Anthology, Scott, Foresman, 1953. The three *Time For* books are bound into one handsome volume. This single book with its introductions for the help of adults guiding chil-

dren's reading, is a fair sampling of children's literature of many types.

For ten years, Mrs. Arbuthnot was review editor of children's books for the magazine *Childhood Education*. She now performs the same service for *Elementary English*. She is a frequent contributor to *The Christian Science Monitor* and various educational magazines.

—(E.A.B.)

SOME CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Reviewed by PAUL ZANKOWICH, Teacher

East Meadow, N. Y., Public Schools

SPACE SATELLITE. By Lee Beeland and Robert Wells. Illustrated by Jack Coggins. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall. 1957. \$2.95.

This is the story of the man-made moon and how an earth satellite is built and launched. It is told in a way that will appeal to youngsters from 10 to 14.

—Paul Zankowich

FLIGHT OVERSEAS. By Henry B. Lent. Illustrated by Photographs. N. Y. Macmillan. 1957. \$3.00.

No more than thirty years ago, it was impossible to buy a ticket for an air trip from New York to Europe. Today, there are many flights each day from the International Airport at Idlewild. This book is the behind-the-scenes story of a trans-Atlantic airliner and the men who guide the liner across the ocean. The book stresses the training that is given the crew flying in order that they may operate the airliner with skill. For youngsters from 10 to 14.—Paul Zankowich

ROCKETS THROUGH SPACE. By Lester Del Rey. Illustrated by James Heugh. Philadelphia. Winston. 1957. \$3.95.

Young people are asking some very pertinent and searching questions about outer space and space travel. This book, which tells the story of man's preparation to explore

the universe, will answer many of these questions in a manner that will satisfy young readers of 12 years and up.—Paul Zankowich

MONKEY BUSINESS. By Irving Adler. Illustrated by Ruth Adler. N. Y. John Day. 1957. \$2.95

Children of eleven and up will enjoy this book which exposes some of the famous and astounding hoaxes that have been perpetrated in the name of science. Pranksters and frauds have always been with us and they always can delude many of the less clearer thinking among us. Deceptions, however, don't live too long in the atmosphere of science. This book presents some of these hoaxes and indicates the faulty foundations which supported them. A good introduction to critical thinking.—Paul Zankowich

EXPLORING EARTH AND SPACE. By Margaret O. Hyde. Illustrated by Clifford N. Geary. N. Y. Whittlesey House. 1957. \$3.00.

The exciting story of the International Geophysical Year in all its wide operations is the subject of this volume. This extensive program involving thousands of scientists from over sixty nations will stimulate young readers and help them crystallize their thoughts about study and vocations. For youngsters of the teen years.—Paul Zankowich

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Leisure—Then What?

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Franklin Watts
Letter to the Editor

A MAGAZINE DEVOTED to the SCIENCE, ART,
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HEALTH and PHYSICAL EDUCATION NUMBER

CARL C. WILLGOOSE, *Guest Editor*

Oswego, New York
State University of New York

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EDUCATION

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APRIL, 1958

No. 8

Health Education *and the* Classroom Teacher

By CARL E. WILLGOOSE
State University of New York
Oswego, New York

*"While health itself is not the finest flower of life—it is the soil
from which the finest flowers grow."*

—Duncan Spaeth

HEALTH EDUCATION includes every educational influence that helps to improve the health of the school child. It is a process of changing health behavior in such a way that boys and girls will not only be able to learn better, but will have the necessary wherewithal to live a rich and full life.

There is no person in the school system better fitted to make a significant contribution to the health of school children than the classroom teacher in the elementary school. She alone occupies the key position for improving child health. With her interest, enthusiasm, and understanding the school health program moves ahead. Without her support, however, the health education program never really gets started.

The Role of the Classroom Teacher

The role of the classroom teacher is unique; no other person sees the child as she does. She can readily compare his appearance and actions today with what they were yesterday or a month ago.

Or she can compare him to the other thirty children in the classroom who are about the same age. This provides the alert teacher with a vantage point that neither the parents or family physician can match. Thus, every classroom teacher holds a potentially powerful job for building sound health. The extent to which she does this will depend upon many things. She will need a warm personality and feeling for children, and she will need to use her powers of observation carefully.

How the Classroom Teacher Promotes Health

Specifically, the classroom teacher promotes health as follows:

1. *By co-operating with the school health service personnel.* Children are properly prepared for a visit to the school physician or nurse for periodic physical examinations. Teachers take a positive approach to the examinations by saying to their pupils, "The doctor is coming to see how many

healthy boys and girls we have." Teachers help in the screening of children for defective vision and hearing. Learning to visit medical personnel and come away happy is an education in itself. Any experience that is satisfying or "feels good" to the child is effective in terms of his future behavior. The nurse, the doctor, and the dental hygienist should be their friends.

2. *By detecting health abnormalities and referring them to proper authorities for appropriate follow-up and correction.* The teacher who uses her "eyes to see" can observe a variety of items related to the onset of poor health. The child with frequent colds and sore throats who is continually snuffing in class may have any one of a number of difficulties involving the upper respiratory area. Likewise, the child that squints his eyes to see or turns his head to hear simple questions may be in need of medical aid right away. The child who often exhibits signs of emotional upset may be missed entirely by the parents, but spotted by the teacher as one who behaves differently than the group and needs individual attention. It should be remembered that the younger a person, the easier they respond to a distracting stimulus. Where an adult can in effect say to a stomach ache or pain, "get thee behind me," the small child simply cannot ignore it. His ability to learn, therefore, is directly impaired. The same thing is true with the child who scores well on a test of learning aptitude, yet

produces work in class that is hardly better than average. He is the kind of pupil that bears watching.

3. *By making the school environment pleasant and desirable for the pupils.* The school, to be at all effective, must be the kind of place a child wants to go to. The classroom is made comfortable by the teacher. She regulates such physical items as temperature, ventilation, lighting, and seating. Her own attitude toward the students has much to do with the health and happiness of the class. There are numerous children who dislike school and show this by coming down with "morning sickness"—a disease that fails to appear on Saturdays, Sundays and holidays.
4. *By providing health instruction in the classroom.* Teaching is done both informally and formally. The teacher seldom misses an opportunity to refer to the child's health and welfare. Health as a topic is also correlated with other materials. It is taught with the aim of changing habits and attitudes. Health knowledge as such must lead to the kind of understanding that results in changed behavior.

Following Up Deviations from Normal Health

There are great numbers of children who come from homes in this country who do not have adequate preparation for school. They lack the sleep, food, or emotional climate that makes for satisfactory school work. Poverty, ignorance and parental indifference are behind this. In the classroom the child

falls short of what is expected of him. He may appear listless or lazy, easily discouraged, and show low scholarship. The alert teacher may be able to notice his dry hair and scalp, sallow skin, poor posture, lack of energy in physical activities, restlessness, and general irritability. It is important that something be done quickly. This situation is no different than one where a child is in need of glasses because he cannot see the blackboard. Expert medical judgment is needed. Follow-up to see that something is done is vital. Here, parents and teachers co-operate, but it is the teacher who is in a position of *control*. She actually controls the situation from the classroom where she has a day by day check on the pupil concerned. Nevertheless, pupils still appear year after year with the same defects or difficulties despite the efforts of school personnel.

The following case report from a teacher in Florida represents a practical approach to a problem of malnutrition. It is more difficult than most cases, but is the type of case that is present in almost every community. It clearly demonstrates the role of the classroom teacher as a *prime mover* in following up basic health abnormalities. The classroom teacher speaks:

Melvin was ten and a half years old and in my third grade. There were three younger children in his family. He repeated the second grade where he was considered to be a slow student. He was thin and small for his age and showed other signs which made me suspect that he was malnourished. He was very pale and his skin had a sallow look; his hair was dry, stringy and dull looking; he had dark circles under his eyes; and had a pinched look on his face.

Melvin came to school all year barefooted and his skin was so dirty it

looked rusty in spots. He looked as if no one had ever seen that he had a bath. He was absent from school quite often. Sometimes his excuse was that he had a cold or didn't feel good or that he had to stay home and look after his baby brothers. Often he complained of being tired or sleepy.

I talked to Mrs. Irwin, our school nurse, and she told me to bring him around so that she could see him. She examined the mucous membranes of his eyes. She looked at his teeth and found several small cavities. She talked to him for some time and found that quite often he came to school without breakfast. His mother's health was bad and he would get up too late to fix breakfast for himself and his other little brother who was in the second grade. He said he never drank milk at home because it was needed for the babies.

Mrs. Irwin had both the boys checked for hookworm and when that came back negative she decided to visit Melvin's home. From this visit she found out that Melvin's father made fair wages but was a heavy drinker and often used the grocery money for buying whiskey, leaving barely enough for food. She said that many times Melvin sat up rather late at night to keep his mother company when the father was out. Mrs. Irwin impressed upon the mother how important it was for the children to get the proper amount of rest. The mother needed medical attention but could not afford it so Mrs. Irwin made an appointment for her and the children to see the county health physician. She consulted the Welfare Department regarding the family situation.

After her visit we talked to the school principal and the lunch room supervisor. We made arrangements for Melvin and his brother to have milk each morning when they arrived at school. The children had been going home for lunch so we arranged for them to be put on free lunches.

Within two months time Melvin improved considerably, both in his

contacts with fellow pupils and in his scholastic achievement. He was simply a different boy.

Parents and Teachers

The average schoolteacher and the average parent have little difficulty getting together to discuss the status of the child—the welfare of which is their mutual concern. There are cases, however, where the child suffers because the teacher is unobserving or is “too busy” to consider the pupil individually and follow up suspected weaknesses. There are also many occasions when the parent fails to do his share of co-operating. For one thing, children sometimes never seem as much in need of attention to the parent as they do to the school authorities. All too often the child in need of eyeglasses doesn’t get them right away because the father or mother knows he can see. It is obvious to them that he can see because he doesn’t walk into the side of the barn. In most communities parents understand quite well the purposes of the school. Others are indifferent. To illustrate this point the story is told of the school nurse who called at the farm home of the mother of Mary to tell her about the girl’s long standing case of head lice. After the nurse took some time to explain the girl’s situation, the mother simply shrugged her shoulders, looked out across the cornfield, and said, “Well, everybody has a few.”

The classroom teacher’s effectiveness with parents can be greater during the primary grade years than at any other time. This is the period when parents willingly visit the schools and lean heavily on the teacher for all kinds of information regarding their offspring. It is also the time when children listen and believe about everything the teachers

say. With parental help and encouragement, therefore, most children will profit considerably from the health instruction given at school. In a dental health unit, for example, the parents can be most helpful. Children who are keeping a record at home of their toothbrushing habits can be encouraged, not only in terms of brushing them, but using an effective method. In one community the parents got together and supplied the teacher with toothpaste and brushes so that the children, under the teacher’s supervision, could brush their teeth following the mid-day lunch. This is the kind of health education that does more than impart knowledge. It satisfies immediate and long term needs of boys and girls because the parents and teachers are working together.

Health Teaching

Health is successfully taught on an informal basis in the primary grades. Instruction becomes a little more formal on the intermediate level. Such an informal basis for teaching permits the teacher to engage the class in a wide variety of activities, both in the school and the community. Health and safety instruction can be quite “down to earth.” Learning experiences, in which various instructional methods are used, are commonplace today. Teachers employ audio-visual aids, library materials, panel discussions, etc. to motivate children. In some areas students work on their own health and safety committees. They take field trips into the community. They put on school health assembly programs, provide health news for student publications, carry on community health surveys, etc. In one Georgia community the elementary school sixth grades studied mosquito control, formed

classroom committees, and began in a small way to spread oil on stagnant waters. Their project caught the interest of the townsfolk and other organizations in the community joined in the effort to control mosquitoes. The whole thing was immensely successful and the amount of first rate learning that occurred was impressive.

Other student activities of a practical nature that have proved to be commendable health education activities are as follows:

- Radio and television broadcasts of health programs prepared and presented by pupils over the local radio or television station.
- Participation in community clean-up campaigns as a part of health instruction program.
- Upper graders conducting a survey of the number and kind of eating places in the community.

- Pupils assisting teachers in classroom duties, such as control of lighting, heating and ventilation in the room.
- Students assuming responsibility for the selection of their own chairs and desks.
- Class members taking part in the planning of school lunches and the operation of the school lunch room.
- Pupils having the opportunity to practice safety procedures with respect to fire drills, and passing to and from classes.

It may be seen from what has been written that health education is broad in its scope, and includes health services, healthful school environment and health instruction. Yet, without the enthusiastic help of the classroom teacher, only a limited effort can be made to improve the health of boys and girls.

BOOK REVIEWS

HANDBOOK OF MENTAL HEALTH FOR TEACHERS. By Elizabeth M. Korte. Hollywood, California. Pan Press. 1957. \$2.95.

This little paper-bound handbook is divided into three sections: (1) an exposition showing teachers how they must critically analyze the problems which confront them; (2) suggestions for teachers concerning the handling of pre-adolescents, adolescents, homework, reporting to parents, the handicapped child, the gifted child, problems concerning grouping and drop-outs, a guidance plan showing vocational needs, and an illustration of classroom activities prepared by pupils of a fourth and a sixth grade. The third part contains evaluation scales for teachers, for parents, for pupils, and for pupils evaluations of subjects and teachers.

—S. M. Amatora

THE SCHOOLING OF CHILDREN WITH IMPAIRED HEARING. By Beatrice Le Gay Brereton. Sydney, Australia, Commonwealth Office of Education. 1957.

This paper-covered volume reports an investigation of a large group of children suffering from varying degrees of deafness, from 1947 to 1955. Divided into five sections, the report covers: (1) the scope and design of the study; (2) learning to use and understand language; (3) language problems in relation to school activities; (4) children's own abilities and limitations as causes of success and failure; (5) the effect of school environment.—S. M. Amatora

leisure therefore becomes a must in at least four age categories:

1. The activity of children where recreation will be recognized in the form of play. Play, experimenting in various areas, is nature's way of guaranteeing the child gets many phases of education. The long years of childhood experimentation lays the basis for a wide range of thinking as it did in the early history of the race.

2. The education of youth. While a justification of a wholesome recreation is not wholly the prevention of juvenile delinquency, essentially this is exactly what it is. Survey after survey has shown that the delinquent boy is one without a number of scintillating, driving interests. One report indicates they became the empty ones, the disinherited, with no ties to any constructive group or activity, with no standards or goals, with little hope, covering their discouragement and despair with bravado or happy-go-lucky clownishness. They feel wanted by no one, they know no one whom they can call friend in the true sense of the word. They are "Adolescents Adrift"—no rudder, compass, no motive power, no beckoning harbor."

3. The productive years. The results of tension, worry, fears and stress indicate the need for stirring, relaxing hobbies for the man and woman in the busy years of life. These activities where the individual throws himself enthusiastically into a program represents the only way to wholesomely relax.

The businessman drives himself at his office all day, then worries most of the night. The housewife tries to run her home, maintain a social life and participate in community activities—and at bedtime is so jangled that she needs a sleeping pill.

Glands attempt to adjust to the constant demands of stress. They pour out excess hormones to keep the body going. For a while they succeed. But in the end the defense mechanism itself breaks down—*arteries harden, blood pressure rises, heart disease develops, arthritis strikes. These and other diseases* are all part of the stress picture.

Strangely, boredom exhibits many of the characteristics of stress and fatigue. Boredom may arise from monotonous types of work in which the individual is not the slightest bit interested, or it may come from having nothing interesting to do. In boring situations, there is not enough adrenalization, there is no enthusiasm provoking interest, the body is not stepped up to an accomplishment level. The individual really feels tired. As an antidote to this fatigue, one should indulge in not less but more activity. The answer is—get into action—do something in which you are interested—get on your feet in the morning—"get going."

Unless an individual has something for which he must get up, he often times just does not get up, claiming fatigue; but, once up, within a very short time body normality is restored and he is no longer tired. One conclusion, certainly, is that many children who seem tense and jumpy, who have a tendency to be highly emotional or irritable, need more activity—not less. They need more activity of the total-body, rhythmic-type running, jumping and balancing. This is the sensible way to achieve relaxation rather than to turn to anti-worry pills, tranquilizers and drug relaxers.

4. The age of retirement. The key to the solution of normality and growing old with enthusiasm is service. As long as challenges are sufficiently sig-

nificant, where the contribution of everyone is needed to win a game or to complete a community health or recreation project, the problem of real living is solved. Our mental hospitals are filled with unmotivated people.

The deadly poison that hides in the dream cloud of idleness is the age-old principle of the "law of disuse." No matter what social position or income a person has, it is a fact that life has a quick way of disposing of non-workers, loafers and people with no hobby or aim in life. Retirement or compatible financial status should never become a lazy man's dream of doing nothing. Senile dementia is more prevalent among stupid, non-motivated individuals than it is among busy people. The brain when not used to its utmost will atrophy. There are years of "borrowed time" ahead for the busy man. With more and more people in the older age brackets, any nation will be handicapped unless some way can be found to use these people.

Man must have the thrill of mastery, the "traveling hopefully" concept. There must be another ridge to cross, there must be more bass in the lake—more work for volunteers. These are the thrills that keep people young. Such thrills carry young and old into a myriad of indoor contests and to the playgrounds and forests. They take men to the tropics and the Arctic. Man endures hardships in long travel and in lonely cabins, devoid of modern accommodations and comforts; they fight heat, cold, flies, and poisonous snakes in order to find thrills. Rob man of this heritage and you take from him one of the great urges to live.

This preparation for living is definitely an educational task. It must sup-

plement the work of the home and the community and oftentimes be a substitute for them. At least four reports have been issued within the last year from outstanding impartial agencies indicating that our tool subjects and our offerings in the secondary schools are being taught better than ever before. Our solution is not back to more so-called "fundamentals" but forward to a real education for the "masses of children". James B. Conant, former president of Harvard points the way. He says "To my mind, the way out of the educational quandary lies in identifying talent young and then providing for teachers who will stimulate the selected students to do their utmost because they want to and as a matter of pride."

At all ages we must keep in front of us unfinished tasks, goals to be accomplished, challenges to be met. There must also be another range of hills over the one in sight. If education can help to furnish people with these goals America can set a pattern for the world, the reverse of which it is doing right now.

Unfinished tasks constitute the essence of life. The unfinished business of life, is life itself. When unfinished business ends, life ends. This observation is as true of societies as it is of individuals. We are confused and baffled by the shattered conditions of the society in which we live. Many of the things which we took for granted, had assumed were settled, have returned for reconsideration. The danger is that these new problems will either not be faced frankly or they will be met with cynicism, even bitterness. The danger is that we shall lose hope, or worse, faith.

Physical Fitness Benefits: A Summary of Research

By H. HARRISON CLARKE

*School of Health and Physical Education
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PHYSICAL FITNESS may be considered as a positive quality, extending on a scale from death to abundant life. All living individuals have some degree of physical fitness; and this degree may be interpreted in terms of their capacity for performance and their endurance in physical activities. Thus, physical fitness is a qualitative element, with many variations among individuals and even within the same person at different times and at different periods of life.

The physician traditionally and properly is concerned primarily with deficiencies likely to impair organic function and to cause death; and medical practitioners rightly devote themselves largely to protecting the organism from disease and to prolonging life. The physical educator, on the other hand, generally accepts the individual free from organic drains and handicapping defects and, through proper activities, develops a body that is physically strong and capable of prolonged effort. The physically fit person, consequently, should be able to carry out the essentials of his job without undue fatigue and should still have an ample reserve of energy to meet life's unforeseen emergencies and to enjoy leisure time.

In our "push-button" society, people frequently question the need for much physical fitness, as doing one's job re-

quires only a minimum of physical strength and endurance. The purpose of this article is to summarize a number of studies in order to present evidence of the benefits of this element in daily lives.

The Physical in Physical Education

Little doubt exists today that the right kind and amount of exercise will develop muscular strength, body flexibility, and circulatory-respiratory endurance. In fact, properly directed exercise is the only known means for acquiring the ability to engage in tasks demanding sustained physical effort. However, it is gratifying to demonstrate the presence of such benefits as a consequence of existing physical education programs.

In a study by Whittle (28), two groups of 81 twelve-year-old boys were contrasted in a number of physical traits. One group of these boys had participated for at least three years in good physical education programs; the other group had little or no physical education in elementary school. The boys in the two groups were comparable in such maturity factors as chronological age, skeletal age (hand-wrist X-rays), weight, height, and developmental level (Wetzel). However, in terms of various affective factors, the two groups had pronounced differences. The means on

the Rogers Physical Fitness Index (PFI) test* for the boys in the good and poor physical education programs were 121 and 103 respectively. The boys in the good programs also produced higher means on the Metheny-Johnson Test of Motor "Educability," the Indiana Physical Fitness Test, and the vertical jump.

A further interesting disclosure of the Whittle study was that boys in each group who participated a "lot" in out-of-class physical activity showed strong superiority over those who participated a "little." Again, in terms of the PFI test, a very high mean of 132 was scored by those participating a lot in outside activities, while the mean for those engaging a little was 109. Of special import for those interested in the development of strong athletic teams is the comparison between the boys from both programs who participated a lot in out-of-class activities. The PFI means were 132 and 116 for the boys from the good and poor programs respectively. Comparable results were obtained for other physical tests included in the study.

Utilizing PFI tests, Clarke (5) reported that male students entering the University of Oregon with four years of high school physical education had a higher average than did those entering with two years or less. In another report, Clarke (4) presented the results of the Oregon Pilot Physical Fitness Project, in which 100 boys and 100 girls in each of eleven high schools were tested with the PFI test before and after a three-months physical fitness program. The median PFI for all boys increased 10 points, from 98 to

108; the median PFI increase for all girls was 13 points, from 93 to 106. A number of other schools elsewhere have reported similar results.

Shaffer (23) reduced failures on the Kraus-Weber (K-W) Test of Minimum Muscular Fitness to a marked degree in a few weeks through body mechanics and vigorous conditioning exercises. Forty-two per cent of 2,281 junior high school boys and girls in Johnstown, Penn., failed one or more of the six K-W test items in September 1955; in November, the failures dropped to 8 per cent. At the end of the term, only 4 per cent failed one or more of the test items, although conditioning exercises *per se* were rarely done by the pupils after the first week of November. Grogan (9) obtained only a 11.8 per cent failure of K-W test items among 1,389 pupils tested in the Roxborough Junior-Senior High School, Philadelphia, Penn. He attributes this low failure rate to the vigorous nature of the physical education program in his school for the past twenty-five years.

Organic Soundness

Kraus and associates (12) state: "Study, treatment and prevention of physical inactivity as an important etiological factor of many disabling diseases is imperative for our national welfare." In *Hypokinetic Disease*, such information as the following was presented as gleaned from many sources: coronary heart disease is twice as frequent in the sedentary as in the active; other diseases more frequent in the sedentary than in the active are diabetes, duodenal ulcer, and other inter-

*The Physical Fitness Index is obtained by dividing the obtained Strength Index by a norm based upon sex, age, and weight. The Strength Index is the sum of the following tests: arm strength from push-ups and pull-ups, back and leg lift strengths, right and left grip strengths, and lung capacity. A PFI of 100 is the median for the test; and scores of 85 and 115 reflect the first and third quartiles respectively.

nal and surgical conditions; 80 per cent of low back pain is due to lack of adequate physical activity; lack of physical fitness goes parallel with emotional difficulties; the physically active show better adaptability to stress, less neuromuscular tension, and lesser fatigability; and active individuals age later, do not tend to absolute and relative overweight, have lower blood pressure, are stronger and more flexible, and have greater breathing capacity, and lower pulse rate.

Morris and Raffle (15) studied the incidence of coronary heart disease among 25,000 drivers and conductors, aged 35 to 64 years, of the red busses, trams, and trolleybuses of the London, England, Transport Executive. Nearly all the conductors' work was on double-decker vehicles, which required considerable physical activity as contrasted with the drivers' relative physical inactivity. The standard mortality rate per 1,000 from coronary heart attack was at least twice as high for the sedentary drivers at three days, three months, and three years from the onset of the first clinical episode. As a consequence of these and other observations, the authors advanced the following hypothesis: "That men in physically active jobs have a lower incidence of coronary heart disease in middle age than men in physically inactive jobs. Most important, the disease is not so severe in physically active workers, tending to present first in them an angina pectoris and other relatively benign forms, and to have a smaller case fatality and a lower early mortality rate."

Luongo (14) studied the health habits of adults who had suffered heart attacks. The evidence showed that sedentary living and poor health habits were the real culprits and not hard

work, overexercise, or occupational stress. The author contended that proper health habits, including nutrition and exercise, should be carried on into middle and old age. Dr. Paul Dudley White prescribed exercise for President Eisenhower following his heart attack (7); and has written: "Proper exercise is as essential to good health as eating and sleeping." (27)

Zankel and others (30) studied the Physical Fitness Indices of diabetic patients in the Crile Veterans Administration Hospital, Cleveland, Ohio. The median PFI score was 53. After an average 33-day period of treatment, the median improvement was 20 per cent. In another study (29), 19 additional diabetic patients were treated for 9 to 60 days. Nine of these patients received regular supervised exercise and ten did not. The patients receiving exercise showed an average PFI increase of 12, or 29 per cent; the patients not receiving exercise showed an average PFI decrease of 2, or — 3.7 per cent. Thus, proper diet and insulin care alone was not adequate to improve the level of strength of diabetic patients; an increase in strength occurred only when exercise was included in the treatment regime.

Gallagher (8) has stressed the value of athletics and other physical activities in the adolescent's development and the frequency with which strengthening activity rather than rest is the appropriate recommendation when the person is below par in health. For medical practice, he states: "The evaluation of strength, the determination of the disproportion between strength and probable stress, and the increase of strength through exercise can at times constitute better management than a regime which focuses upon the ailment, emphasizes

rest, and ignore the facts regarding strength development in exercise." During World War II in the hospitals and convalescent centers of the Army, Navy, and Air Force and since the war in Veterans Administration and other hospitals, exercise was and is being used extensively in speeding the recovery of patients. Exercise has become an essential adjunct of rehabilitation, "the third phase of medicine." (22)

Mental Alertness

A number of researches support the contention that physical fitness is related to mental achievements. The great psychologist, L. M. Terman, concluded after twenty-five years of studying intellectually gifted children that: "The results of the physical measurements and the medical examinations provide a striking contrast to the popular stereotype of the child prodigy, so commonly predicted as a pathetic creature, over-serious, undersized, sickly, hollow-chested, nervously tense, and bespectacled. There are gifted children who bear some resemblance to this stereotype, but the truth is that almost every element in the picture, except the last, is less characteristic of the gifted child than of the mentally average." (25) In Terman's initial monumental study, when his gifted subjects were young, symptoms of general weakness were reported by the school nearly 30 per cent less frequently for the gifted than for the control group. (24)

In a current study, Jarman (10) investigated the academic achievement of boys at ages, nine, twelve, and fifteen years, who had high and low scores on the following physical tests: Strength Index, Physical Fitness Index, McCloy's Arm Strength Score, and McCloy's Classification Index. For each age and

for each test, the high and low groups were equated by Intelligence Quotients, with the means and standard deviations being comparable each time. Quite generally, the boys with the high scores on the various physical tests had significantly superior grade-point averages in their class work and significantly higher means on standard scholastic achievement tests. Earlier, Rogers (21) studied two groups of college students with nearly equal I.Q. averages, but differing in average muscular strength. The scholarship of the high strength group (I.Q. = 107) was considerably superior to the low strength group (I.Q. = 111).

During the academic year 1939-40, Page (16) found that 83 per cent of the freshman male students dismissed from Syracuse University because of low grades had Physical Fitness Indices below 100; 39 per cent had PFI's below 85. These same students had scholastic aptitude scores well above the average; their median was at the 72nd percentile. Coefield and McCollum at the University of Oregon (3) found that the 78 male freshmen with lowest PFI's during the 1954 fall term were definitely low in scholastic accomplishment, as compared with all men at the university. Yet, these same low fitness students were superior in scholastic aptitude.

In the 1941 annual report for the Brookline, Mass., public schools (18), the average PFI for the 126 boys whose names appeared on the high school scholarship role was 117. Studies in Manchester, England, (2) revealed that only 2.4 per cent of students with good scholarship were below the average in physique, as evidenced by body measurements, but that 39.7 per cent with poor scholarship were below the average.

As a consequence of this type of evidence and as a result of many years of observing low fitness individuals, Rogers (2) contended that physically unfit boys and girls at all levels of intelligence have greater difficulty in maintaining mental effort and alertness. He explains the phenomenon this way: "The dependence of learning upon muscular strength is better comprehended when it is recalled that the brain (and mind) do not easily tire: *what tires is the body*. Thus, the bloodstream, clogged with waste products of muscular activity consequent upon all waking life, whether primarily physical or mental, interferes with *synaptic changes*." (21) Rogers then proposed the following Law of General Learning Potential (GLP): The potential of learning anything depends upon both intelligence and physical fitness, generally in the relationship expressed by the formula, $GLP = if^2$ The I.Q. was proposed as the measure of intelligence (i) and the PFI as the measure of fitness (f).

This Law is interpreted to mean that a person's general learning *potential* for a *given level of intelligence* is increased or decreased in accordance with his degree of physical fitness. The individual when fit is more prone to be physically and mentally alert, to be vigorous in his applications, and to suffer less from efficiency-destroying fatigue than when he is unfit. While one may disagree with the formula proposed by Rogers and with the tests he advocates for use with it, certainly the basic concept of the law is tenable.

Social Adjustment

Physically unfit boys and girls experience difficulty in day by day personal adjustments with others and in developing good social habits and

attitudes. From the Berkeley Growth Studies, Jones (11) reported: Boys high in strength tend to have good physiques, to be physically fit, and to enjoy favored social status in adolescence. Boys who are low in strength show a tendency toward asthenic physiques, poor health, social difficulties and lack of status, feelings of inferiority, and personal maladjustment in other ways. Studies by Kuhlen and Lee (13) and Tryon (26) disclosed that the seventh-grade boy who lacks skill and has a distaste for organized games is frequently ridiculed and often shunned by his age group; at the twelfth grade, outstanding athletic skill can maintain the prestige of a boy even though he has few other assets.

Studies conducted at the United States Military Academy by Appleon (1) indicate that physical proficiency measures are useful predictors of non-academic aspects of military success, particularly at the lower range of motor fitness. The statistics show that of every ten applicants in the bottom 10 per cent on Academy fitness tests, nine make below average cadets.

In a current study, Popp (17) administered the PFI test to approximately 100 sophomore boys at Marshfield High School, Coos Bay, Oregon. The 20 boys with the highest PFI's (102-135) and the 20 boys with the lowest PFI's (56-79) were chosen for contrast through case studies. As one phase of this study, the 40 boys thus selected were arranged in a single alphabetical list. Five judges (principal, vice-principal, dean of boys, and two physical educators) each independently selected the ten most desirable boys (those most nearly like sons they would like to have) and the ten most undesirable boys (those least like sons they would like to have). Sixteen boys were named by at least one judge

in the "desirable" classification. of these, 11, or 69 per cent, had high PFI's; and five, or 31 per cent, had low PFI's. In selecting the "undesirable" boys, again 16 boys were chosen. Of this group, four, or 25 per cent, had high PFI's and 12, or 75 per cent, had low PFI's. Thus, the five judges, without knowledge of each boy's PFI, generally recognized in the boys with high scores on this test the many and varied traits they would like most to see in a son of their own.

In a paper before the International Symposium of the Medicine and Physiology of Sports and Athletics at Helsinki, Finland, Cureton (6) presented evidence to show that personality itself is responsive to physical training in view of the changes that can be made in the autonomic nervous system and in the cardiovascular state. He concluded that men are more energetic, more buoyant and optimistic, more action-minded, more playful, more aggressive—in general they appear more extroverted and more healthful when they are trained than when they are untrained. And, as men go through progressive training, they tend to tackle harder and harder

tasks; and they state that they can work relatively harder and longer.

Conclusion

In this presentation, an effort has been made to relate exercise to physical fitness and to relate physical fitness in turn to the organic, mental, and social attributes of the individual. In so doing, personal opinion has been submerged and the case for physical fitness rested upon such objective evidence as exists.

It is not intended to present physical fitness as a panacea, as, obviously, there are many other important factors contributing to our various performances. Perhaps it may be argued that, *other things being equal*, we will be more effective as a consequence of an adequate level of fitness. We should have the strength and stamina to carry on the duties of the day without undue fatigue and with an ample reserve to enjoy leisure and to meet unusual situations and emergencies; we should realize in an adequate measure our capacity for physical activity as well as for mental accomplishments unhampered by efficiency-destroying fatigue.

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Changing Growth Patterns of the American Child

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ACCUMULATED Documentary evidence suggests that the rate of physical and mental maturation of the American Youth has been accelerated. Children of today are taller, heavier, healthier, possess greater mental capabilities and demonstrate advanced physical skills which in many instances surpass the best achievements of older age groups of previous years.

The evidence of earlier maturity is of great import to Education. Our American system has frequently been criticized because of the "lock-step" pattern by which children must advance from grade to grade at the same pace regardless of ability. Based upon the present developmental acceleration it appears that our children may be moving forward not only in "lock-step" but also in the wrong "platoon" since for the same chronological age, children today are biologically older than in previous years.

*Today's Children Are Taller, Heavier,
More Mature*

For the past few years extensive research has been conducted on boys participating in Little League Baseball. The size, skill and maturity of the boys playing on tournament teams was particularly impressive. These young players, although only 11 and 12 years of age,

were as tall and as heavy as the average 14 and 15 years old of today and as tall and as heavy as the average 16 and 17 year old of twenty-five years ago. The majority of these pre-teenagers, as established by Crampton's pubic-hair index, (4) were physiologically 15 years old, hence adolescent and not pre-adolescent as their chronical age would indicate. (6)

It has been found that children who excell in sports are usually one to two years advanced in maturity. (8) However the recent studies on boys in Little League reveal an advance in maturation rate of three or four years.

But what about the average child? Has his growth pattern changed as those who possess athletic prowess? Although research on physiological growth over an extended period of time is not available, anthropometric data show dramatic changes.

Since 1880, a period of only 75 years, the average 14-year-old boy has gained five inches in height and 24 pounds in weight. (2, 11) In weight alone this represents a 25 per cent increase. In the same period, the average 10-year-old girl has gained four inches in height and 14 pounds in weight. In the last 25 years the average 12 year old boy and girl has gained three inches in height and 15 pounds in weight,

(13, 11) and the average 14-year-old boy of today has grown to the size of the 16-year-old.

Numerous reports show that the average height and weight of our entire population has increased. (10, 12) However, the greatest change is to be found in children at the age of pubescence or just preceding pubescence thus indicating an advancement in the rate of maturation.

Earlier Maturation of Sports' Skills

One of the most impressive indications of earlier maturation of American Youth is the outstanding athletic performances of youthful participants. Unusual achievements are being recorded each year by younger athletes.

In Little League 11 and 12 year old boys have been found to run as fast as average 15 and 16 year old boys. Pitchers in this program throw baseballs as fast as 70 miles an hour which is equivalent to some college pitching and certainly remarkable fast for pre-teenage youngsters when compared to the speed of the professional pitchers in the major leagues most of whom throw fast-balls at speeds of 90 miles an hour.

Also extraordinary and almost incredible is the 100 mile an hour speed at which some players in Little League can swing a bat. Mickey Mantle, celebrated and exceptionally strong center fielder of the New York Yankees and winner of the triple batting crown in 1956, swings his bat at 115 miles an hour which is only 15 miles an hour faster.

In individual sports such as track and field and swimming there is unmistakable evidence that teenagers are fast approaching world record performances and have already surpassed world record achievements of earlier years.

In the 100 yard dash there is but 1/10 of a second difference between the record time run by a high school student and the fastest time this distance has ever been covered by man. In the 220 yard dash the difference between the record performance by a high school student and the World Record is a slight 7/10 of a second. Only 9/10 of a second separates the High School Record and the World Record for the 440 yard run.

The World Record in the high jump was established in 1956 at the Herculanean height of 7 ft. 1/2 in., yet this is less than three inches better than the High School Record of 6ft. 9 3/4 in. This High School Record surpassed every Olympic high jump performance until 1956 when Charles Dumas established the standard of 6 ft. 11 1/4 in. The pole vault also provides an interesting comparison. In 1957 a high-school track star vaulted 15 ft. 1/8 in., a height which, many years ago, most believed could never be achieved by anyone. This teen-age record performance actually exceeds the Olympic Record for this event. The most rigorous and the best test for all-around ability in track and field is the decathlon. To capture the gold medal in this event the champion must demonstrate advanced maturity in skills, physique and physiological processes. In the 1948 Olympics at London the decathlon was won, with a record performance, by a teen-ager, Bob Mathias, who was 17 years of age.

Many will recall or have read about the golden era of athletics in the years just preceding the First World War. This was the period of spectacular Jim Thorpe. Yet, of the 12 World Records in track of Jim Thorpe's era, nine now have been surpassed by teen-age athletes.

Some people will debate that this sensational improvement in track and field performances is the result of better athletic equipment and more favorable conditions of track and field. Such may be true; however, swimming performances reveal a similar trend and certainly water has always been water and recent record times cannot be attributed to any particular modification of the bathing suit.

The 1957 AAU swimming championship in Houston, Texas serves as an excellent example of exceptional achievements by youthful performers. Seventeen year old Carin Coke set a record in the 110 yard backstroke, 17 year old Nancy Raney surpassed the record in the 110 yard butterfly, 15 year old Carolyn Murray set a new standard in the mile freestyle, 15 year old Sylvia Ruuska set two records but most impressive was 13 year Chris Von Saltza who shattered no less than three marks.

It is obvious that the modern record performances are achieved, in most instances by athletes who are much younger than in previous years. Such accomplishments have been made possible because of accelerated maturation.

Academic Ability of Today's Children

Changes in mental capabilities are difficult to identify but there are evidences which strongly suggest that modern students are academically more competent than students of earlier years.

It has been found repeatedly that early physical maturation favors good scholarship and late physical maturation poor scholarship. (1, 3, 5, 7, 14, 15) Since children are maturing physically earlier today it can be concluded that mental maturation has also been accelerated.

Within the past few months a report

"They Went To College Early" was released by The Fund For The Advancement of Education which gives illuminating evidences that outstanding junior and senior high school students are capable of completing college academic requirements. (16) Twelve institutions of higher learning throughout the United States in this five-year research program all found that the students selected to attend college at an early age were capable of satisfactory conduct and achievements. In many instances the "Early Admission" students were more successful than their comparison students who had graduated from high school before enrolling in college. Some efforts have been made to remedy this situation but this program has been limited in scope. (9) It is apparent that entire school curriculae should be evaluated in light of present data which indicate an accelerated mental maturation of American Youth.

In Conclusion

Several evidences indicating that the rate of maturation of American children has accelerated have been presented. Although it is not possible to establish the exact cause or causes of this quickened growth pattern the outstanding advances in medicine, our increased knowledge of nutrition and the control of our environment must be considered primary factors. Antibiotics and vaccines have eliminated or lessened many childhood diseases. The diptheria, smallpox, whooping cough, malaria, typhoid fever and scarlet fever that were often part of the histories of their grandfather and great grandfathers are largely unknown to present-day youths. The vitamin-fortified and balanced diets which are now within the financial

means of almost everyone provide for more optimum growth.

Certainly as Education strives to keep students informed of the prodigious technological progress of this modern

era, it must not overlook the fact that these great advances may have effected a change in its own product and the country's most valuable resource, the American Child.

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What You Should Know About Sight

PART II

The Sense of Sight

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SEEING IS a complex process and involves more than merely the eyes of an individual. To understand it one must have some knowledge of physics, physiology and psychology.

A. Physical Factors

The physical aspects deal with the viewed object, which sets in motion a whole series of activities, beginning with a form of energy outside of the individual's environment. This energy is light which is either transmitted through or reflected from the object and is projected towards the eyes, where it is received and refracted or bent, then is converted by photo-chemical action into neural or electrical energy. The latter is then conveyed by the optic nerves and optic radiations to the visual centers of the brain. It is in these centers that a perceptual image is aroused and identified. This image is then projected mentally back into outer space whence it came, the observed object is localized in relation to its environment, and its distance from the eyes is estimated.

1. Light

To be seen, identified and judged how far away it is in space, an object must have certain characteristics and must be in the proper environment or

surroundings. Energy in the form of visible light is the first prerequisite essential for seeing. The observed object must either be illuminated by natural or artificial light or it may be self-luminous, such as an electric bulb.

When an object is illuminated, its visibility is governed by a number of factors—its reflection and absorption characteristics, which in turn are dependent on its surface texture, smoothness and polish. The smoother the surface the more reflecting ability it has and the easier it is to see the object, within certain limits. If it reflects too much light, it produces glare which in turn interferes with the ability to see the object.

2. Form, Size, and Color

An object possesses form or shape, size, and color. The latter two play important roles in the act of seeing. If the object is too small, it cannot be seen and identified by the normal processes of refraction, for it is too small to reflect a sufficient amount of light. Its image on the retina also subtends too small an angle to be resolved, unless it can be enlarged with a lens or other means capable of increasing its size.

Its color and saturation are important

for two reasons. The darker the hue, the less brightness it has and the less visible it is. Secondly, its visibility is affected by contrast, that is, by its environment. A green object lying on grass is more difficult to see than a green object on white sand.

3. Movement

Whether an object is moving or standing also affects its visibility. There are instances when a moving object is seen best, and, at times, a standing object is seen better than a moving one. For example, a hunter will more readily observe a moving target, such as a scampering rabbit, than one who is standing still. On the other hand, the words on a printed page can be more easily read when the page is stationary than when it is in motion.

The identification of an object depends on the seeing situation. Peripheral or side vision is primitive and is better adapted for observing motion; while central or direct vision is better adapted for discrimination of fine details. In the case of the hunter, the type of perception he needs is gross, more primitive, and therefore it is easier for him to see an object in motion. In attempting to read a fine line of print or to thread a needle, one has to use the central or more direct vision, which functions best when the object is not in motion.

B. Physiological Factors

No matter how large or well illuminated an object may be, no matter how much it contrasts with its environment, if the eyes are defective or vision is impaired, light coming from the object will not be focused on the retina. Consequently, the retinal image will be distorted, causing the image in the visual centers to differ in one way or another with the observed object. The following is a brief description of the anatomical

parts involved in the act of seeing, and some of the variations from the normal which interfere with the proper functioning of the visual mechanism.

1. Size of Eyes

When the eyes are said to be defective, it is meant that they are anatomically imperfect, that they are either larger or smaller than the average normal eyes. The defect may be congenital, or it may have been acquired as a result of disease or accident.

Normal eyes are those whose size approximates the statistically average eye. If they are too large, they are only partially covered by the eyelids and give the individual a pop-eyed appearance. If the eyes are too small, they seem to be deep in the orbital cavity, accentuating the bony structure in which they are set, giving the individual an emaciated appearance.

An individual with large eyes is usually myopic or near-sighted, while one with small eyes is generally hyperopic or far-sighted. Functional disturbances, which will be discussed in a later section, may simulate near-sightedness or far-sightedness in eyes that are normal in size. In advance stages, these disturbances may even produce structural changes.

2. Cornea

A normal cornea, the window of the eye, is clear, transparent, and spherical in shape. A distorted cornea, or a cornea with an unequal curvature, is called astigmatic and, in many instances, is responsible for reduced visual acuity, because of the manner in which it refracts or bends rays of light entering the eye.

3. Inner Parts of the Eye

The inner contents of a healthy eye are clear and free of opacities, or dark spots, which interfere with the focusing

of light. The crystalline lens, whose function is that of a focusing mechanism, is transparent, resilient and capable of changing its shape or curvature as the demands arise with each change of the distance from the object viewed. The aging process reduces its flexibility and makes it difficult, if not impossible, to focus light on the retina. Glasses which compensate for the loss of flexibility of the crystalline lens are generally prescribed for seeing fine details at close range.

In the early stages of cataracts, in older people, the lens becomes soft again and therefore more resilient. For this reason many old people discover that they can read again small print without their reading glasses. Unfortunately, this "second sight" period is a short one, for it is merely a prelude to complete loss of sight when the cataracts become fully developed and opaque.

The retina, which can be compared to the film in a camera, is a net-like extension of the optic nerve and forms the inside coat of the eye, spreading itself like sections of an open fan from the back of the eye where the optic nerve enters. The retina in conjunction with the choroid, another inner layer, vascular in construction, serve to adapt the eye to various intensities of light so that the individual may see in the dark and in the light of varying intensities. They are aided in this by the iris, the colored membrane which controls the size of the pupil. If the light intensity is very high, the iris contracts, the opening of the pupil decreases, and the amount of light entering the eye is reduced.

The main function of the retina is to receive the image of the object viewed in space. This image acts on the tiny elements of rods and cones that are

spread out like a mosaic within the retina. Here is where a photo-chemical change transforms the radiant energy which entered the eye to neural or electrical energy and starts its journey along the optic nerve to the visual centers of the brain.

While the entire retina is sensitive to light, with the exception of the normal blind spot which marks the entrance of the optic nerve, there is one spot within the retina which is more sensitive to color and for the identification of details. This is the macula or fixation point on the retina; and in normal eyes it is in direct line with the object being observed.

5. The Optic Nerve

The two-dimensional image formed on the retina sets up a chemical reaction which converts light into neural energy, and this in turn is conducted by the million or more fibers of the optic nerve to the innermost recesses of the brain, either by direct routes or in the form of relay stations, or as Sr. Charles Sherrington called them "nerve exchanges."

6. The Visual Field

The visual field of each eye is the not-quite circular area in space, representing the outer limits of visibility which surrounds an object while it is held in line of sight by direct fixation. The field of vision is greater on the temporal side than on the nasal side, where it is partially obstructed by the nose. Its over-all size is relative, for it is in direct proportion to the distance of the object from the eye—the greater the distance, the greater is the field of vision.

7. Eye Muscles

The six eye muscles that are attached to each eye control its rotations and fixations and move the eyes rhythmical-

ly and in unison. Since seeing is a binocular function, both eyes must be directed at the same time in the direction of the object viewed, so that its images will fall on corresponding areas of the two retinas. If the two images fall on different parts of the retinas, the observer usually becomes aware of seeing double when there is only one object in space.

The eye muscles have a potential capacity for contraction 50 to 100 greater than is ever needed in normal eye movements. Knowledge of this fact should dispel the erroneous idea prevalent that in a normally functioning eye there can be such an oddity as weak eye muscles.

C. Psychological Factors

The flow of neural energy along the optic nerve and nerve pathways arouses mental images within the visual centers of the brain. Because seeing is a binocular act, the organism becomes aware of the two images that are focused on the retinas. If the ability to fuse the two images is well developed, the individual sees only one image in space.

1. Fusion

Fusion, however, may not be stable or it may be under-developed. In these cases, maintenance of one image is subject to fluctuations, depending on general body fatigue, the type of lenses one looks through, or on drugs which affect the higher cortical centers. It is a common experience to find oneself seeing double at times as drowsiness sets in, or when one looks through someone else's glasses.

2. Double Vision

The need to see singly, however, is an organismic one, for it has a survival value to the individual. If one perceives two cars when only one is approaching, the selection of the wrong image for

the real one may spell disaster for the individual. Diplopia, or double vision, is therefore not tolerated very long. The organism makes adaptations, sacrifices clearness of vision and will tolerate a blurred image rather than to permit double vision. If double vision persists, it is an indication that perceptual difficulties are well advanced and that more radical concessions will have to be made to keep the individual seeing singly. Outside aid can be introduced to either eliminate the diplopia or to so change the ocular situation that singleness of vision becomes less difficult to maintain. Double vision which results from tumors within the brain are outside of the scope of this presentation.

3. Space Projection

The highest stage of perceptual development, with the exception of abstract thinking, is the individual's ability to project into outer space images which are aroused within the brain centers and to judge their distances in the surrounding environment. Some of the clues which aid in the judgement of distances are: interposition, that is, when one object obscures another and therefore appears nearer; size, the larger representation of one object in a group appears closer than a small one; and aerial perspective, those objects which are sharply outlined in the distance appear nearer than those that are hazy.

But not all three-dimensional seeing is due to visual clues. Much of the experience gained is contributed by the other senses. For example, the size of an object held in the hand is like the size of the object one sees with the eyes. The evolutionary development of stereoscopic vision runs parallel with the development of manual skills. The primitive hunter had little use for three-

dimensional vision. The demand for precise judgement of distances arose with the development of manual dexterity and skilled craftsmanship. Stereoscopic vision or depth perception is of greater significance to an individual at close range than at far. In the modern industrial age and in a world where

close range seeing is ever increasing, three-dimensional vision is needed more than ever and, if for any reason, the individual fails to satisfy the organismic demand for single binocular vision, his level of achievement is lowered—regardless whether he is in an industrial plant or in a school room.

BOOK REVIEWS

HIGH SCHOOLS TODAY AND TOMORROW. By Charles W. Bursch and John Lyon Reid. New York. Reinhold Publishing Corporation. 1957.

Persons who don't want to think should not read this book as the authors provide so many ideas on curriculum and buildings that the reader can not help but be stimulated. Some persons will agree and some will disagree with Bursch and Reid regarding the desirability of the kind of school that they suggest. However, all will agree that we must take a look at the high schools of today and plan for the high schools of tomorrow.

This volume starts out with the scrutiny and stock-taking of our present program and plant. A high school program is then proposed along with the facilities and plant required to carry out this program. Numerous plans and suggestions are included to support the plant described. The most significant concept developed is that we must not be bound by the present concept of class units but must organize our programs and develop school plants according to the job that we want to do.

—Jerome Leavitt, Portland State College

CULTURAL FOUNDATIONS OF INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION. By John N. Nef. N. Y. Cambridge University Press. 1958. \$4.00.

The six essays of this volume comprise the Wiles Lectures given at Queen's University, Belfast, 1956, by John N. Nef, Professor of Economic History at the University of Chicago. Professor Nef is concerned with chang-

ing attitudes and interests in relation to a developing economy and a growing technology. It is his thesis that man's concern for beauty, truth and goodness have done as much to produce the modern world as have natural resources and economic institutions. It is to history as a whole that Professor Nef turns for the origins of contemporary industrialism. Beginning with the new methods of scientific inquiry in the sixteenth century, Professor Nef traces the events and developments of following centuries in such areas as mathematical thought, objective observation, and quantitative measurement. He also follows the developments in technology and the new styles in art and architecture. Stress is placed on the growth of new scales of values and new emphasis in ethical thought. The birth and development of contemporary industrial society are presented in a clear and novel fashion.—William P. Sears

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS. By Clifford P. Archer. N. Y. Ronald Press. 1958. \$5.00.

This volume has been prepared for students in elementary education who are planning to teach in the rural areas. The importance and significance of rural education are stressed and the problems of this vast section of the total educational program are identified. The author points out that a full knowledge of rural culture is basic to an understanding of rural children and to an insight into problems of curriculum content and teaching methods.—William P. Sears

High-Brow, Low-Brow or "No-Brow"

By MAXINE BROWN

and

WALTER BARBE

University of Chattanooga

OUR COUNTRY has come to the position where we worship the average. The only trouble with being average is that it is so mediocre—yet this is the category in which the "majority" strive to be. It is the category into which most people are placed, after heaving a grateful, "Whew, I made it." The unfortunate thing is that because most people do fall into this category, everything centers around them, everything is directed toward them, and they have every opportunity to do nothing and be complimented for their successful failure. "If it weren't for people like Joe, where'd the country be today?"

Perhaps the reason for this complacency may be that it is impossible to define this particular group. No one has succeeded in putting his finger on exactly what the capabilities and limitations of the average man actually are. Until such a clear-cut definition is made, the big majority of the population can rest easily for no one knows what to expect of them. Consequently, they do nothing but rest on their hard-earned label, "average man."

For lack of a definition, labels must suffice. Average, normal, majority—take your pick. Nothing will be expected of you if you can make the grade and woe be unto the man who is not striving to be in this group. Above or

below are equally damned. High brow or low brow are equally bad. "No brow" seems to be the goal.

Labels, Labels, Labels

Pick your label. You're bound to fit into one. If "average" does not suit you, how about "normal"? If you are statistically inclined (that means you like numbers) mean, median or mode might be your choice. Mean is when you add them all together and divide by the number of people you have. If the answer you get isn't what you thought it would be, use what you thought it should be, for you probably made a mistake in arithmetic. "Ain't it a good feelin', being average?"

Now finding the mean is really very uncertain. So try the median—you know what that is. It's smack dab in the middle. You may be dumber than half; but, by heck, you're smarter than the other half. The security of this spot can't be questioned. You can't fall off, and nobody is going to push you off unless somebody else goes first. "Comfy?"

What's Your Rank, Corporal?

Because of individual differences, categories are needed. Not just one set of standard would do for all people. Some may like percentile rank, while others prefer intelligence quotients. If

neither really suits, the 100 score with 70 passing is still good. Even the old A, B, C rank is used in some places. (S and U are popular, but are frowned upon by those who really like to know where they are). But if none of these will really do, and they don't suit the majority, try mixing a few. It can be more fun than mixing metaphors.

Of course you know that percentile rank means how many people you beat. But this can be disillusioning for those who score at the 50th percentile, because they never failed a test before in their lives. A teacher said once that she intended to get half her class above the 50th percentile if it was the last thing she ever did. It is a pity that this wasn't the last thing she ever did. She's still teaching, and teaching some children who are not "normal." Well, maybe she'll straighten them out before it's too late. Incidentally, she later proudly reported that her goal had been accomplished after the first month and she just relaxed for the rest of the year.

There is one disadvantage in allowing others to mix their standards, however. For example, it is hard to answer the parent who asked, "I don't know why everyone complains about my son's 73 I.Q. Seventy is passing, isn't it?" Seventeen more points and he would have been average," but "that's life."

If you are normal, you have your label. Even those below average have a label—sub-normal. But those unfortunate individuals who are at the other end of the scale either have no label, or must be called abnormal. Of course, the group that is above average is so small that it is really not necessary to show them any special attention, and certainly not necessary to dignify their position with any special label. The

safest approach to them is to ignore them, and maybe they will go away.

I. Q. is certainly the most misunderstood standard of all. In answer to the parents question, "I. Q. of 85. Eighty-five what?" The skillful examiner must attempt to explain the difference between 85 I. Q. points and 85 bags of beans. (The best explanation is usually akin to explaining the meaning of a word like "any" or "was.") The way out of this is to say, "Mighty fine boy you have, ma'm. Mighty fine."

Complacency and the Average Man

Complacency is a component part of every average man. This is what makes him average, and is what makes mediocrity so attractive. He's not necessarily the "let George do it" type, he'd rather it was not done at all. He surrounds himself with other complacent people, and in this way avoids the uncomfortable feeling that he ought to do something in life other than spend eight hours, five days a week checking to make sure the workmen are wearing safety shoes.

The average man may have been the backbone of the nation but that was when he lived so far away from his neighbors that he didn't realize how little effort it actually takes to exist. Say nothing, do nothing and be nothing is certainly the slogan of the average man. What is his contribution to society? Ask him and he will tell you he pays taxes. He's the one who complains when nothing can be done about it. He doesn't object to anything that could be changed with a little effort. He doesn't care who is president, as long as he voted for him.

His wife is a good mother. Or, at least, she's an average mother. She doesn't always know where the kids are,

but she is developing initiative in them. She votes like her husband because he tells her to. She doesn't know that her husband votes as he does only because the polls say that the majority of the votes will be cast for this candidate. (This demonstrates a basic law in the society of mediocrity—always stick with the majority because there is safety in numbers).

The children of the average man start off by being inquisitive and, worst of all, energetic. (Absolutely "must not's" in the society). But with the help of twelve years of schooling, this is most often cured and the children develop into average, normal, "no-brows."

Ground Rules for Methodical Mediocrity

Why is it that to be simple-minded is an insult, but to have a "simple life" is glamorized in both poem and song? If such a life is desirable, it is time that rules be set down under which one may operate in order that he will never be accused of being anything but normal.

1. In order not to upset this precarious position, which the average man must always be in, he must watch carefully what he reads. Newspapers are permissible if one limits himself to headlines, and city politics. Novels may be disturbing, but cannot be considered a breaking of the rule if no more than the first chapter and the ending are read. (After all, if the book is any good at all, it will soon be a movie).
2. He does not associate with people outside his class—especially people from the lower class. An occasional visit with one from the abnormal group is not too upsetting if he is certain to keep

the center of the floor. To relinquish this natural right of the average class is to threaten the very bases of society.

3. Never challenge authority. After all, if they weren't right they wouldn't be the authority. See how simple it really is? With practically no effort you too may join the ranks.
4. Watch your local newspaper for announcement of sales. They are planned just for you.
5. Have a dog. It is so comforting to know that someone will always love you regardless of whether you make a fortune or not.
6. Attend movies regularly—particularly on Wednesday as it is bank night. No reason to check what is on. If it's from Hollywood it is good. (Those foreign films are just a waste of time, though).
7. Save green stamps, king cotton stamps, enter contests, identify with the man who wins the jack pot and, buddy, you've got it made.

Follow these suggestions and the nation will certainly be led to a position where there will no longer be anything but normal people. And then someone will think up a new category and the trouble will start again. Therefore, the only hope is to offer a practical plan of providing for the average man.

Homogeneous Grouping for the "No-brows"

Homogeneous grouping for bright children in school is frowned upon, but looked upon with favor for slow-learning children. Has anyone thought of grouping the average children so that they can be kept away from the challenges of

superior children? Instead of providing for the gifted, let's group the average homogeneously and see if they can't escape the upsetting influence of those children who are always wanting to do something. If those children who fall at the upper end of the scale would quit always asking "why" and give the average child a chance, then maybe this grouping would not be necessary. But since there are always a few children who will not accept things as they are, and insist on trying to find new ways of doing things that have been done successfully the same way for years, then let's get them away from the average child. When special classes are set up for average children, then the teacher will be able to teach without being bothered by those troublesome children who insist on thinking. It is true that under the present setup, some of these

children do conform. Unfortunately, though, there are some who just will not submit in spite of all that can be done about it. (I even heard of one once who said that the teacher was wrong. Imagine!)

Some people favor identifying average children by tests, but the easiest way is just to watch them. The average child is always so sweet. He never disobeys, and only asks questions when he absolutely must. In fact, the teacher hardly knows he is there. Maybe he doesn't always know the answer, but does the average man know the answer? (Or even what the question is?)

Into which category do you fall? If you have made a choice, forget it—you're not average. Average people really have no choice. It's all the same, only the label is different.

BOOK REVIEWS

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO LIFE AND WORK. By H. W. Hepner. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc. 3rd Edition. 1957.

This is a new edition, the third, of a book that has been popular since its first appearance in 1941. Because many readers will not have opportunity to extend their formal acquaintance with psychology, the author has endeavored to present both psychological principles that are fundamental and significant in life and work. He presents a foundation for a social philosophy that applies to our changing order so that the reader will be able to function more effectively in a position of industrial leadership. After presenting the reasons for studying psychology in part one, twenty-nine more chapters divided into five additional sections treat: (1) understanding the individual's behavior through the adjustment concept; (2) personal problems; (3) industrial psychology; (4) the consumer; and (6) how to read reports of psychological researchers.—S. M. Amatora

CURRICULUM PLANNING THROUGH IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS. By Harold Spears. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1958. \$4.50.

Like all the books from the pen of Harold Spears, this exploration of the in-service study programs for teachers and staff members is written in a forthright and direct manner. Dr. Spears gives a factual account of the in-service programs currently being used in typical school systems designed to improve the quality of instruction. The author indicates that these in-service training programs to a great extent merge with the tasks of curriculum planning. There is much fine material presented on such topics as the organization necessary for curriculum study, parent participation in school problems, the in-service orientation of new teachers, and expected results and limitations of in-service training.—W. P. S.

An Encounter With Communist Teacher Training

By MARY H. B. WOLLNER

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"DO COME and see what we are doing, and then you will know the things you hear about us are not so," was the earnest plea of the young man from the Eastern Zone of Germany to whom I talked at an international congress of educators in Italy last summer. The sweat on his brow was caused, I felt, in part by his earnestness and in part because he kept looking around to see whether or not he was observed by other members of his delegation talking to an American.

I said, "If it can be arranged, I'll certainly come to see you and learn what you are doing:" I am engaging in a voluntary investigation of schools and teacher training in a number of European communities. As I speak German fluently, an excursion from the West Zone into the East Zone of Berlin would, I hoped, be without too great difficulty.

Apparently the young man, a graduate in education at the famous Humboldt University of Berlin (now in East German control), learned that it was all right to talk with me. A few evenings later I again had a discussion with him and another graduate student, similarly a candidate for an advanced degree. Both were about thirty years old, had more than five years actual teaching experience, and were fathers of families. They explained to me that when I ar-

rived in Berlin I would not be able to telephone from the West Zone of the city as the service between the zones is cut off. I declared myself ready to overcome this difficulty, if possible. So, on a scrap of paper, each of them wrote a telephone number, one of which could be reached in the daytime, the other in the evening, but I should have to find a telephone booth in the East Zone.

This formality over, and in the spirit of the international congress by which we were surrounded, one of the young Germans then began to urge me to consider how wonderful it was that in the first reader for all children in East German Schools international friendship is being promoted. "You see on each page the picture of a child from a different land and his name. This is Mischa from the Soviet, this is Nils from Sweden, this is Bob from England, and Ellen from America. Then in the final picture all are holding hands and singing and dancing in friendship. We teach peace to our children!"

"Then how do you, as fathers, explain to your six-year-old when he points out to you that this picture of international friendship is not accurate? Kids are not so dumb."

Their faces fell. True, kids are not dumb. Then the more extroverted of the two recovered himself to say, "We are at a loss to straighten out the con-

fusion of our children sometimes. They hear one thing at school, then when they come home, they may, by a slight twist of the radio dial, hear a broadcast from RIAS."

This was the last statement which might have been considered faintly honest that I was to hear, and even his remarks held the implications that Western Europe and the non-communists are at fault for confusing the children and spoiling this lovely picture of peace and brotherhood.

All my colleagues in West Berlin urged me not to discuss politics when I traveled over to the East Zone. They assured me that nothing could happen to me and that there was really no risk involved. But they gave these assurances accompanied by such grim warnings and such long faces, and, of course, often out of a background of personal tragic experience, that I could not quite feel reassured. I followed the advice and emptied my purse of all except my passport, a few coins of East German money, and enough West German coins for carfare. The best way to travel from one zone of Berlin to the other is by the elevated train, the S-Bahn. I made this trip, in the interests of this investigation, only a half-dozen times but each time with a measure of apprehension, if not actual dread. The physical appearance of the trains and stations in itself contributes to this sense of tension and foreboding, and so do the sober facial expressions and manner of restraint of the passengers in the trains. The season, besides, was November which in this northern city means a perpetual overcast sky so that you live at noontime in a kind of twilight and the rest of the day in the dark.

Although I had the anticipated trouble in reaching by phone my "con-

tact men," at last an appointment was fixed and I set forth upon my venture. That day it was raining and my impressions of the dirty, charred buildings, still showing war's effects, the wide stony streets—nearly without traffic so that footsteps echo strangely—were only heightened by the dripping, flapping red banners and the garish building-posters reminding everyone of the "glorious October revolution."

One of the graduate students met me at the agreed-upon place and promptly escorted me to the fourth floor of the Central Institute of Pedagogy which, just as the name implies, is a state ideological center. I met, in fact, an exceedingly suave, bright gentleman, merely introduced as Mr. Miller, in his private office, complete with pretty secretary. The setting was, as I look back on it, uncomfortably like the Hollywood setting for a mystery with political overtones.—Every courtesy was extended: we sat around a table, coffee was served, and the conversation apparently flowed. The student excused himself presently and the official declared himself free and at the disposition of the interview. We were joined by another colleague, a benevolent type, who affected great simplicity. He had been born of the people, his mother took in washing, but he finally became a country school teacher; no degrees and no titles, but he has written a book on methods of teaching.

We talked about education and comparative education. They expressed great interest in the American school system and wished to know more about its organization. They complained gently that their information was meager and that they eagerly desired more.

What questions did I have?

I explained that I was studying teacher training, especially how it was

conducted and under what conditions action research on the part of experienced teachers was taking place.

This they answered as follows: the East German government spends proportionately very high sums of money on education and on teacher training. Two instances of governmental support will suffice. One fact is that the experienced teachers, a select group among whom were the graduate students I had met, are freed from their school district duties for three years, paid a monthly stipendium (500 east marks) plus subsidies for family responsibilities, plus book allowances, and are set to studying under the direction of the Central Institute and selected faculty from the University, and to doing research in attached schools. At the conclusion of their studies they write a thesis or project and stand an oral examination. Some then return to their school systems; others may remain there to become trainers of teachers in elementary schools. The shortage of teachers—and, of course, in particular teachers with the proper sovietized outlook—will be met in this way.

The second fact is that the government subsidizes all book publishing. Therefore, books, whether literature for young or old, or professional or scientific, are remarkably available and exceedingly inexpensive. This state of affairs is ruefully acknowledged in Western European educational circles.

I took it rather for granted that my informants would paint a glowing picture. When they still pressed me as to what questions I wanted to ask, I said

I'd be interested to know how they explained to pupils, to a child in his developing years, that human nature is made up of both good and bad, that much growth is hampered by conflict, and yet that the acceptance of conflict is essential to human growth.

"Ah!" said the director, Herr Miller, gaily, you in the West are much preoccupied with such questions. Here, you see, we stress only the good side of the child, present him with good, strong models of leadership—in his schools and scout groups—and teach him the values of collectivism and world peace. We recognize only that economic frustrations have produced conflict and with the economic changes which we are introducing, we will reduce the bad effects of a bad environment while our upbringing of the child gradually succeeds in toning down (dämpfen—muting) the bad impulses!"

"This could be extremely dangerous," I began. Whereupon both gentlemen became suddenly as if electrified by a single thought. With shining faces they announced, "But when you read Makarenko, all this will become crystal clear to you. You cannot read this book and remain unchanged!" They launched into a eulogy of the "pedagogical poem" of the Russian, Anton Makarenko,* recently translated into German, which describes the building of a "collective" for homeless waifs of the 1917 Russian Revolution, something like a work-camp-school project or rehabilitation of youth center.

"But we don't want to spoil it for you. Read the book and you will under-

*Makarenko, Anton Semonovitch. *The Road Into Life*, Moscow, 1950, Berlin, 1957. This book is, by the way, very readable and has some of the excitement of a good story as well as the interest of a pedagogical experiment. Its influence on Communist pedagogical thinking is a matter for longer critical concern. His "Lectures on Child Care," for example, present unequivocally authoritarian attitudes toward the child (also very popular in East Germany).

stand our enthusiasm," they chorused finally.

I understood, indeed, in that same instant what I was up against, what we are all up against, whether we are talking to Communists around a small table or a large table: a spirit of fanatical conviction. All roads used to lead to Rome. Now all the thought roads of the true believer in Communism lead back to his sense of utter commitment.

So for that day I departed, aware that we had conversed but really, of course, not had a meeting of minds. The overtones and undertones of the interview I summarized to myself as follows: "Don't ask us if we have any problems or any doubts. We know we are right because we have seen the light. Communism has all the answers. When everybody else sees it our way then will come the Utopia."

The second day of my visit included a school, one of the schools used for study by the Institute. It was a new school, four years old, built in one of the most crowded and economically-impovertised districts of East Berlin. The class I visited was a Fourth Grade with 42 boys and girls,—a demonstration class fitted up with a one-way vision screen so that, in an adjoining room, teachers may observe the lesson undetected. I sat, however, in front of the children facing them. The teacher was under a handicap, with a crowded classroom and two visitors, another of the Institute's bright young graduate students and myself, and the lesson itself held little of vital importance to Fourth Graders. It was a grammar lesson, on the declension of the articles, *der, die, das*. The children first received some written work handed back, upon which occasion the teacher told several how poorly they had done and admonished

them in ringing tones to write more correctly and neatly. The recitation then went forward, lively but I thought mechanical. The children raised their hands and recited, but their attention was only superficially on the teacher and somehow subtly diverted. This undercurrent of secret restlessness was remarked upon to me by the graduate student. I did not envy the teacher and could sympathize with him when he complained of being overworked, especially with committees after school hours.

Finally, we located the principal of the school, a harassed-looking young man who appeared to be rather more the type to be a football coach or scout leader (he undoubtedly was both). Rather perfunctorily he did the honors of the building, especially two well-equipped science laboratories, then left us to admire the gymnasium alone and to be picked up by the Institute's chauffeur. My overall hunch about the school remains that there is much strain on the part of the faculty. This is due, probably partly to the difficult district and partly to the general sense of being politically on trial which all educational workers in this 11-year-old Communist state feel, and finally to the fact that all teachers are under pressure to act as Youth Leaders in the so-called scout movement (Young Pioneers).

Notable was the absence of any display of child art, apart from a few painfully-printed posters. Glass cases in the corridors were full of cups and ribbons, won by school sports teams. Sports are strongly emphasized.

The last interview was with the author of a new reader series which is universally adopted in the first four grades of the East German State. He, too, seemed delighted to receive me and

set forth the inevitable coffee and conversation.

"Tell me," he said winningly, after he had displayed his texts—described his love of his work, "what do they say about us in your country?"

"Well," I replied repressing a slight inner quaver, "it is said you have merely substituted one fascism for another."

"Now there!" he exclaimed very heartily, beaming at me, "you can see for yourself it is not so! We are far from authoritarian here. We all work together as friendly colleagues for the cause of peace."

However, he next tried a method of attack. "I can't understand," he said, "how you can permit those dreadful horror-comics to continue. Here we simply refuse the publishers paper and they cannot print any such trash to corrupt our children and our youth." He showed me samples of approved comics printed with government approval.

I took another little breath and replied: "We are indeed concerned about such problems and are proud of the co-operative efforts of many citizens, parents, teachers and book publishers to work through an improvement in comics literature. But, you see, we in the United States are very shy of any kind of press control."

This he found, as I expected, abhorrent. No such long way around for him and his colleagues! They were possessed, he stated, of a daring optimism." Yes, and they believe universal peace must be realized through their approach.

"How do you propose to get at the roots of war?" I queried. "What do you plan to do to take care of competitiveness and conflict in the atmosphere which surrounds the cradle and which influences the growth of the individual? Must we not first understand the mis-

understanding which takes place in one-to-one relationships?"

"Ah, that would take a long while to discuss."

He had another appointment. And I took my leave on that note. Yet I was sure he would still insist on the short-cut answers. The Soviet State will simply tell families and individuals not to be competitive, but to be loving and co-operative only, and they will obey. In effect, the dearest wish of those with whom I talked would be to run a sort of Spartan State where children at an early age could be snatched from the family (where individual ethics might get a start) and be placed in residence collectives (This accounts for the popularity of the Makarenko book—his pupils *had* no parents.) so that all controls could be exerted to create citizens for the State. Since this cannot quite be done as yet, parents are given very specific instructions (see Makarenko's lectures, translated into German: *Lectures on Child Care*) on how to behave toward their children (exceedingly manipulatively) and how to raise them up to be loyal collectivists. The old European model of parental authority and sense of responsibility in which everything a child does, says, breathes, thinks, or dreams must be closely supervised, is, alas, a very good structure on which to build this new picture of the family blessed only in terms of its responsibility to raise good citizens for the State.

It almost makes you think that the casualness and equality of adult-child relationships in the United States constitute, after all, good safety valves against any totalitarian encroachment.

My plane leaving Berlin a few days later was more than half-full of the daily quota of refugees, leaving the East zone and seeking a new life where they

could bring up their children as they wished; all worker-families with two or three babies.

Perhaps it is hard work for us to continue to try to bring up our children in some understanding of human psychology, of themselves, of their mistakes and their weaknesses as well as their strengths and capacities for growth, but the alternative—bringing them up by code and slogan, in total intellectual

and emotional dishonesty—is a betrayal of their essential humanity. How do you live when you've been betrayed? You live for revenge. Your lips may speak the pretty formulas about universal brotherhood, but in your heart slumbers fearfulness and treachery. It is a rare miracle, although it *does* happen, when courage and a love of truth can break the bondage of a totalitarian environment.

BOOK REVIEWS

MANAGEMENT OF THE HANDICAPPED CHILD. By H. Michal-Smith, Editor. Foreword by Arnold Gesell. N. Y. Grune and Stratton. 1957.

Dr. Michal-Smith, chief clinical psychologist at Flower and Fifth Avenue Hospital in New York and a professor of pediatrics of the New York Medical College, has gathered together nearly twenty authorities who deal with the diagnosis, treatment or rehabilitation of handicapped children and the result is this useful book. There are chapters on the child with severe behavior disorders, the child with "nervous" habits, the mentally gifted child, the socially and emotionally deprived child in institutional care, the child with speech and language disorders, the visually handicapped, the child with impaired hearing—in fact, the whole range of disorders and handicaps that claim many of the nation's children. A final chapter considers community aspects and the care of the handicapped child. A list of recommended readings for parents concludes the volume.—W. P. S.

TECHNIQUES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING. By Ralph K. Watkins. N. Y. Ronald Press. 1958. \$5.00.

The outstanding feature of this book on the principles and techniques of good teaching is its excellent arrangement. There are numerous texts on "methods of teaching," but few can compare to this one in its recognition of the needs and interests of those who will study its pages as they prepare to enter teaching. The emphasis throughout is

on how the operations involved in good teaching are performed. The content of the volume is built around a series of major questions—What Is Worth Learning?; What Must Pupils Do to Learn?; How Can the Teacher Direct Learning?; to mention but three. The order of presentation corresponds to the steps a teacher would employ in carrying out his work. Each major unit is divided into subunits. At the beginning of each unit, there is an introduction addressed to the reader. Then, at the beginning of each unit or subunit, there is a list of questions—What To Look For—to be used as guides in reading and as possible centers for discussion. At the close of each unit or subunit, there is a section called "Unit Implementation." The whole concept of unit planning and unit use and evaluation is introduced from the very start. As a text, "Watkins" should prove especially effective.—W. P. S.

80 PUERTO RICAN FAMILIES IN NEW YORK CITY. By Beatrice Bishop Berle, M.D. N. Y. Columbia University Press. 1958. \$4.75.

This is the report of a medical study carried out in a slum district of New York City. It should be of interest to the many teachers who are teaching in schools that have large number of Puerto Rican children in their classes. The study was concerned with the environmental factors in the lives of these Puerto Rican migrants that influence illness as well as with the medical aspects of disease.—W. P. S.

Can *the* Schools Help Industry With Communications?

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DURING THE LAST decade business and industry have found increased need for the improvement of communications. Employees at all levels, including supervisors and executives, have been found deficient in writing, reading, speaking, and listening skills which comprise the elements of communication. Accordingly, industry has had to furnish further training in the language arts beyond that with which employees' school training has equipped them. On that account business and industry have invested substantial sums of money to establish institutes, to bring communication specialists to their premises, and to send their personnel to various schools for the requisite training. Employees are thus being taught to write, read, speak, and listen more effectively in carrying out their job functions.

Some concept of the enormity and complexity of the communication problem may be gleaned from a perusal of the extensive bibliography of books and of articles in professional journals (3) and in popular business literature. These writings analyze various aspects of the communication problem—content, methods, and the like, and propose diverse approaches and solutions—psychological and verbal. With marked diversity in approaches, analytical tech-

niques, and constructive suggestions, most writers and investigators appear generally agreed on two points: 1. The need for improved communication in business. 2. The need to train employees in communication.

After considerable practical experience in communication training in school and industry, and after a rather extensive review of the literature in the field, the present authors are of the opinion that industry's need to train employees in communication skills poses a real challenge to teachers in our high schools and colleges. Writing, reading, speaking, and listening are fundamental skills. Proficiency in these verbal areas is demanded in everyday living, in social situations, and on the job. The fact that industry is currently finding it necessary to reteach its employees these basic skills indicates that they were inadequately learned in the first place, and suggest that in some instances they may even have been poorly taught.

This inadequacy discovered by industry in employee communication may, in part, be due to the fact that instruction in the language arts in the school—in writing, reading, speaking, and listening—is still kept too compartmental. Only within the last ten years, as Wagner (4) has stated, has listening

been given attention in the way of systematic instruction. An increasing number of curriculum guides for the language arts now stress teaching the art of listening. Actually writing, reading, speaking, and listening are all inter-related. Therefore teaching communication cannot be done effectively on a partitioned basis. The present authors in describing a clinic approach to the business communication problem (1, 2) have emphasized the need of the four verbal skills.

It is equally important to recognize that communication involves psychological as well as linguistic elements. The psychological elements are those which embody human qualities in the context of expressed ideas. The linguistic elements on the other hand are peculiar to language itself, to the words and verbal structures employed. Only in theory is it possible to consider these elements discretely. In actual communication they are completely fused. Any communication, as soon as it is written or spoken, is infused with human meaning beyond that resident in the mere words or verbal structures of statement. This is clearly implied in the standard distinction of denotation and connotation which is applied to word meanings.

Since the school provides the first formal language training, and since schooling is meant to be a preparation for life, it follows that language training in school must be in large measure thorough, realistic and practical. Moreover, in view of the psychological and linguistic nature of communication, the school must provide language training in both its human and its verbal aspects. Psychologically, improved communication demands that the communicator be trained to identify the real character of the subject matter he is discussing in

relation to his own nature as a human person, and to that of his potential readers and listeners. The student must be taught to think, both creatively and reflectively. As a communicator he must try to keep his thinking scrupulously free from prejudice and bias. He must learn to structure his ideas with completeness, clarity, and coherence. Moreover, he must become critical of his own ideas. He must be taught inter-and intra-personal aspects of communication as they relate to his status as a human being in a human social climate.

On the linguistic side, a student should acquire practice in every class in delimitation of word meaning, and in distinguishing between denotation and connotation. This would help to improve sensitivity to word meaning, a characteristic noticeably lacking even among many college students. Perhaps a more fundamental linguistic weakness in today's students is a marked tendency for them to be overly confident of their own word power. In view of the known correlation between word power and leadership, one cannot help but feel that many students would profit significantly from concentrated vocabulary building. Moreover, the student ought to learn to be concise in writing and speaking, to indulge in less generalization and more particularization. Experience with current student weaknesses implies that both content and formality of expression demand attention in the school.

Education is a preparation both for living and for "earning a living". Since the language arts are so vitally connected with personal success in every sphere, it would seem to be in order that schools take every possible step to improve them, in instruction, in learning, and in practice. Communication in-

volves both the personality and the verbal capacity of the student. Improved communication requires intensified concern with both the personality and the verbal areas of communication. In English and speech classes because of instructional emphasis, materials and objectives students are encouraged to be more sensitive to the use of language. But every teacher must become a kind of communications instructor if education is to achieve its potential in communications. Teachers in other subject areas should try to transfer and preserve in their classes some of that sensitivity to language which the language teacher imparts. It goes without saying that every teacher should himself be able to communicate effectively if he is to develop this ability in others.

To express oneself effectively in writing or in speaking, and to be able to understand the written or spoken word of others, are vital necessities for suc-

cessful and satisfying everyday living. They are becoming ever more important for vocational success. To teach the student these language arts is the school's task. When that task is successfully carried out employers should be able to assume proficiency in these skills in the graduates whom they hire. They should be able to build upon this proficiency and develop it. Our graduates should be ready to be groomed by industry for its own particular communication needs without requiring generalized training first. Unless a marked improvement appears, there is every likelihood that contemporary schooling will have failed in meeting its own communications challenge. In previous generations reading and writing were two of the three prime targets of the most elementary education. Shall they not now become at least gunsights to the more complex targets of our generation, especially those in industry?

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Time Out *for a Grin*

How Easily *and* In What Ways Do European School Children Smile?

By DR. ROBERT E. BELDING

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DURING THE LAST summer a group of forty-two American educators visited European schools in action. It is the first time that a group of educators has gone to The Continent to make an intensive comparison of the problems and practices of European schools with our own.

Although the chief purpose of the mission was to talk with children, teachers and administrators, tour members developed certain "child-centered" hobbies which they rode throughout the jaunt. There was Frank who took as many pictures of youngsters-in-action as he could find; there was Louise who asked of any child she could corner: "How did you learn to take such good classroom notes on what teacher was saying?" "What do you do with your workbook when it is filled?" or "Where did you get those good-looking leather pants?"

Floyd, who was on the verge of retirement, insisted on testing, personally, every piece of playground equipment, while Miss Burton's busy pencil recorded school devices to prevent trouble or accidents: the keys to school windows kept in teacher's pocket, the pegged stair rails to discourage sliding pants, or the signs forbidding adults to climb in playground jungle gyms.

The hobbies were incidental to the

principal purpose of the trip, but acted as a simple and relaxing escape between lectures and visits to study classroom and administrative problems.

Perhaps the most naive and uncomplicated hobby was my own attempt to elicit a smile from the children of different countries. In my work with schools in the States I had for years practiced drawing a smile from the pupils. Some responded to my own smile, and others were strangely timid, but no particular pattern of responses was identifiable; some city youngsters smiled readily, and some did not; some country children were smiling before I presented the stimulus of my own smile, whereas others remained sober through any effort on my part to bring forth a grinning response. Sometimes the kindergartener reflected his delight, but as often it was the high school junior.

It was interesting, therefore, to perceive in the children of each European country visited what appeared to be a pattern of responses to my deliberate effort to convert a sober or downright unhappy expression into a grin.

In the Scandinavian countries, for example, most of the children were either already smiling or ready to smile on the slightest provocation. The older school youths had lived close to the austerity of the war years, and some

psychoanalyst might say these early frustrations might be uncovered later in their lives, indicating that they were not the happy youngsters they appeared to be on the surface, conscious portion of their Egos. Yet whether they had lived through the Nazi regime or been born since, these healthy youngsters from farm and dairy countries were more frequently than not wearing their smiles before they were approached. In passing school children in the corridors, or bending close for photographic impressions of their playground exuberance, these hedonic youths of the Skagerrak wore their smiles where they could be observed at any moment, or shamelessly displayed with only slight inspiration.

While the Viking experience had given me little opportunity to test the effectiveness of my own smile stimulus, the technique proved even less effective in Western Germany. Here the children had also been through the traumatic war experience. But far more of them than in Scandinavia had lost one or both parents, and the ruins around them were sad reminders of what had so recently happened. Throughout Western Germany the children appeared serious as they pursued their studies. Some older youths said quite frankly that their country was not happy to remain under the domination of foreign troops, that it was mature enough to become emancipated from dominating conquerors. In the same breath they expressed the urgent necessity for our troops to remain, for the very day of withdrawal, they felt, would be a signal for the Russians to move in and "unify" the country. The fears of their elders were obvious in their faces, and the smiles, with few exceptions, appeared through reluctant conditioning. Here

was a disciplined formality and a seriousness of purpose to even the trace of a turned-up mouth.

I was still feeling that my own smile had not been given a fair chance at encouraging children to grin when our group was suddenly whisked over the mountains into Switzerland. Here was fresh encouragement to try my stimulus smile, for the Swiss smile was as prompt as precise as the movement of their watches. Indeed a popular teacher-training course is in Methods of Group Singing, and before recess the school children may burst forth in five minutes of exhilarating song, often in parts, frequently with yodels, and sometimes to the accompaniment of a strumming guitar. Windows may be opened wide for the occasion, for the mountain air would appear to assist the transition from class to playground. The type of song is indicative of their spontaneous joie-de-vivre; their smile may not be already there, as in Norway or Denmark, but it is close to the surface, and they carry it easily to the playground, up the Alpine poles where they prepare their arms and legs for later mountain adventures, then back into the classroom where even their recitations are punctuated with well placed laughter.

Even in the German-speaking parts of Switzerland the sunshine of adjacent Romance countries seemed to have penetrated to the faces and the hearts of the people. Here was most encouraging evidence that a smile brings a smile.

No reminder is necessary that the Dutch, with their broken dikes and floods, have experienced some of the most disheartening and penetrating hardships of recent years. Parents and children alike have reason to be sober. Their lives have been physically hard; the children seem to feel a stronger

home rule than some of those from other Continental countries. The decision of father is somehow final. This in itself, according to modern American psychology, should tend to make children grin with conflicts and ready to squirm from under parental rule.

Dutch parents and children seemed to have an in-spite-of-it-all smile that was easily brought forth, especially in areas outside the hustle and bustle of the big, moneyed cities. There was no evidence of bitten lips on the part of these children. By contrast the grown-ups would, on slight provocation, talk bitterly of the horrible days of Nazi occupation. Their hate was deep-seated, yet their children, contrary to their elders, delighted me when they demonstrated once again that my smile stimulus worked. This was the first country we had visited where there was an obvious contrast between generations. The best hope for Holland is in the future expansion and economical development of its land; parents, seriously and with great faith, have charged their children with the weighty responsibilities of improvement, and yet it is the children who possess the more ready smile.

Rural France was also visited, and the adventure of smiles was again revealing. School here was not in session, and it became immediately apparent that it was not easy to corner and grimace at children running in vacation freedom. Also with high walls or hedges of suspicion around farmhouses the children at play were not readily observed. The mistrust built around par-

ental farms was apparent in the faces of the children—skepticism of neighbors, of those from adjacent villages, of the Germans, the Russians, and equally of the Americans. My smile drew the same blank it had in Germany, but underneath it must have been more suspicion than fear.

Perhaps the most valuable part of the French experience toward this bit of informal "research" was a conviction that the most reliable and efficient way to study puerile smiles was in a classroom or school yard.

Conclusion

After only a few weeks of close observation of childhood expressions there can be no effort to come to any scientific conclusions, nor should there be any attempt to draw laugh lines across the face of Europe. The diversion did appear to yield interesting contrasts in reaction to a grin stimulus and gave me an opportunity to exercise my own smile to see what results would follow.

Over a century ago Horace Mann returned from a trip to European schools to report that American classrooms needed more smiling teachers and laughing youngsters. There is much evidence that American children are happier in their schooling than they were a hundred years ago, yet it is apparent to me that even with unstreamlined methods and the good old fashioned curriculum the European youngster, whether his smile comes readily or is already there, still has something to teach us in the form of disposition.

Program for the Superior Student

By WM. WENDELL WILLIAMS

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Superior And Not Gifted

WE HEAR so much today about the gifted student. If we were to examine the student body of an average school, we would find that only 1% to 4% of the group would fall into the "gifted" category. These students have an I.Q. of 130 and above. The small number of students in this group would make it almost impossible to form classes that would be justifiable to the public, since the cost per student would greatly exceed the average.

Our schools have very definitely neglected the student with a higher learning ability. We talk of democracy in our schools and of how unjust it is to segregate the superior student. Yet, if we accept the development of each individual to the optimum of his ability as our philosophy of education, we must consider carefully the grouping of our students. It is a rather simple task to bring the superior student down to the average. On the other hand, we realize and concede that it is an almost impossible task to bring the educable and trainable student, the less "gifted" student, up to the average. Doesn't it make as much sense for us to stop trying to bring the superior student down to the average as it does to try to bring the trainable student up to the average? Our schools must realize the importance of adjusting to the individual students rather than asking the individuals to

adjust to the schools. If segregation is wholly undemocratic, we are most certainly guilty of this offense in segregating the educable and trainable. Segregating the superior student, then, is unquestionably democratic, since it affords opportunity for the development of his distinctive capacities in the same way that this opportunity is afforded students of average and low ability.

One of the fundamental principles of democracy is equality of opportunity. Very frequently, there is a tendency to confuse "equality of opportunity" with "identical opportunity." This misconception has hindered the development of the superior capacities of the gifted, because their individual needs have not been stimulated and satisfied. By placing the gifted and superior student in special classes, we are answering the purpose of democracy in trying to develop each person to his optimum ability. It is obvious that a group of students with an I.Q. of 120 and above, who are capable of achieving all A's and some B's, can move much faster than a slower average group. These students, grouped together, can use their intellectual powers to a fuller extent because standards of achievement and accomplishment are higher. Such a program need not be termed "gifted," but could be classed as one for the superior or faster-learning student.

Plans In Effect

Various plans are in effect for teach-

ing the student who is capable of learning at a faster rate. One plan is that which provides enrichment in the regular classroom, where students are grouped together regardless of their learning ability. This program says, in effect, that the teacher is capable of dividing the class into various groups, and that each group can learn according to its ability and interests. Thus, both slow and fast-learning students are thrown into designated groups within the same class. Whether you call them red or white, the students in these classes are well aware of their classifications as slow or fast. The teacher must move from group to group and is obviously over-burdened with many assignments per day for the same class. A teacher in this situation rarely has the time to guide the efforts of the better students because of the demands made by the slower students. Neglect of this kind can do more harm than good. Faster-learning students in a regular class soon discover that little effort is needed to lead their class. They are not stimulated to greater achievement, since they feel that little is required of them for a superior rating. This is not answering the real purpose of true democratic development.

Another plan which seems to answer the plea of some is to permit all students to take certain subjects of special enrichment interest. Thus, a student who professes an interest in chemistry can enroll in an enriched chemistry class and not in other areas. This would present a school program with special classes in all areas, enabling the student to select those subjects he would especially like, or is especially qualified to study. The program would operate somewhat as follows: Many students in the freshman year would

want to take enriched science and math courses and continue them throughout the sophomore and junior years. Some of these students would want to enroll in an enriched physics class in their senior year. On the other hand, there might be some seniors extremely interested in physics, but without the background of enriched science and math. Consequently, if this group joined the enriched physics class it would be lost with the students who had gradually built up their background for the physics course. This would create a hit-and-miss situation of students totally unprepared along with those who had developed the necessary potential over a three or four year period. The program would lose continuity, consistency, and its purpose of enriching the student throughout his high school career.

Acceleration is another plan advocated by some educators. It is thought that placing a gifted student with older groups of more mature mental ability will improve his motivation, will enable him to develop effective study habits, and will permit him to complete his formal education at an early age. The proponents of this program fail to realize the dangers that might prevail. The child might compete intellectually with older groups, but one must constantly be aware of the physical and social maladjustments that may result from a student's placement with older classmates. Acceleration or "skipping grades" would definitely result in the loss of fundamental skills and processes gained by the student in the normal course of events.

A fourth type of program would be much more organized and dynamic. It would consider the whole child as an individual. Children who have the ability and ambition for an enriched

program would start in the ninth grade. The criteria for eligibility in such a pattern would be: high grades, an I.Q. of 120 and above, teacher and guidance department recommendation, good physical and mental health, and parental permission. The critics say that this plan neglects those individuals who have a great flair for writing in English, or for atomic research in science, or for some type of math. However, in examining the Terman 30 year study, we note that there is a very high correlation for the ability of the gifted student in all areas. In other words, if a student can perform outstandingly in math and science, he should also have the ability to do a respectable job in English and the social studies. Students selected in such a manner and grouped only in certain subjects can progress at a much faster rate than those in other classes. The increased rate of learning among these students will allow more time for the teacher to guide each one into activities of a creative nature and to stimulate them to explore and analyze new ideas experimentally and critically.

River Dell Plan

At River Dell, we feel that the latter plan is the best and most appropriate. In our seventh and eighth grade classes, we study each of our students and select those superior individuals who can best profit from an enriched program. After studying students in the seventh grade, we have found many who are very weak in the basic fundamentals. Therefore, in the eighth grade, we group these students in major subjects of English, math, science, and social studies, and try to bring them to a much higher level. By so dividing the group, we feel that there is a better opportunity to select the students who are

capable of carrying on an enriched program in the ninth grade.

Students are selected on the following basis:

- (1) grades made in their subjects;
- (2) their I.Q.; (3) teacher recommendation; (4) physical and mental health;
- (5) student's and parents' consent.

In this way we make it perfectly clear to the parents that we are offering a certain type of program which some will want their children to take, and some will not. So far, very few parents have objected to such a program. This program does not aim to isolate any pupil from his class or from his friends. In all four years, that is, nine through twelve, the pupils are grouped heterogeneously in the homeroom, in physical education, foreign language, music and art classes, in the shops, and in other electives. In the ninth and tenth years, the students who are selected for this program are grouped in English, math and science classes. In the eleventh and twelfth years, social studies is added to these categories.

We feel that such a program should be enriched on horizontal and vertical planes. The enrichment in math and science is definitely on a vertical basis; that is, five years of work will be completed in four. In the English and social studies areas, we feel that the enrichment should be accomplished on a horizontal basis. In English there will be more theme writing, a more creative and imaginative approach to discussion, research papers, and greater depth in the study of literature. The same general principles would apply to junior and senior American history classes. This gradually leads the student to a more complete college pattern of working and thinking. Thus, college prepara-

tory students could be the only ones participating in such a program.

Only those students who have all A's or B's in the beginning may embark upon such a program. A high C might be considered, but this would definitely be an exception. The student would be expected to maintain his A or B average. If he could not maintain this average, he would be put on probation for two months and then dropped from the enriched program, if he showed no improvement.

Teachers For The Superior Student

In order to carry out a program for the superior student, we must have superior teachers. It is imperative, therefore, that we select the best teachers, the most inspirational teachers, and put them with superior students.

The inspirational teacher is the one who manifests unlimited enthusiasm in his job. He is constantly striving to locate special talents in each student, and to arouse in him the power to think for himself. He is always stimulating and nurturing the student's powers to greater heights of initiative, creativity, imagination, and self-realization. The critics of the program object to using the best teachers in classes of superior students. They say that these teachers should be with the average and below average students. Such a program can be successful only if we employ teachers who have a depth of knowledge of their subject matter far beyond the average, and a genuine knowledge of human relations.

Early Results

It is too early to record the results of such a program. Nevertheless, we

have found that there is a high correlation between students selected for the enriched program and their choices of outside extra-curricular activities, such as football, basketball, band, cheerleading, newspaper, majorettes, and student council. It has been noted that students in this group study more and accept greater responsibility than in the past. Since they have entered the enriched program, many students who had hitherto completed their homework in school find it necessary to work at home on many of their assignments. In some subjects, the students in the enriched pattern are progressing twice as fast as those in the average classes.

One of the most encouraging observations is that the students are enjoying these enriched classes and do not resent the additional required work. The average student should spend two or more hours on his assignments, while the enriched student need not spend any more than three hours on any one night. We sincerely hope that the additional work in the enriched courses will be kept to a minimum. Consequently, the program will not become too burdensome and there will be less danger of its failure.

We are convinced that such a program is necessary for the realization of the needs of superior students. Since the program is designed to develop to the maximum those qualities which will make the students happy and successful persons throughout their lives, we feel that we are not making intellectual snobs of them. We are guiding our superior students to make plans that are commensurate with their ability. We are inspiring leaders for our democratic pattern of life.

Activities of Beginning Teachers

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HOW BUSY A person is the beginning teacher? Does the job require more than the tasks of teaching and of planning for teaching? Is the young teacher occupied with professional and community activities outside of the school? Are home responsibilities a significant force?

Affirmative answers were found to these questions in a survey which was conducted to ascertain the extent of the activities of a new elementary teacher. There were 52 responses to the survey questionnaire which had been sent to 122 beginning teachers, all graduates of Hunter College. The majority of the persons are second or third grade teachers, although all grades are represented by them; and most of the teachers are employed in New York City and in nearby counties of New York and New Jersey. Persons included in the survey had no more than four years of teaching, as they had entered teaching during the period from the fall of 1953 through the spring of 1957.

It may casually be assumed that beginning teachers are rarely given extra assignments during their first few years, and that principals and school officials would urge them to concentrate on teaching. The survey revealed that three-fourths of the new teachers were assigned extra duties in the schools. The assignments reported may be classified under three headings: committee work, supervisory duties, and miscellaneous tasks.

Committee Work

Committee work concerns: (1) *professional* matters such as teacher associations, staff relations, salary, social planning, orientation of new staff, and plan books; (2) *curriculum and curriculum development*, including ceramics, map study skills, grade leaders and representatives, socialization, procedures and related skills, and gifted children; (3) *miscellaneous* special activities such as revising report cards, hearing test referrals, school policies, fund raising, the Red Cross, the rexograph, and discipline.

Supervisory Duties

Supervisory duties assigned to and accepted by the new teachers involved in the survey include: (1) *facilities* such as selection of filmstrips and scheduling movies, the music library, the record collection, the organization and supervision of the school library; (2) *affairs* including supervision of student teachers, coordination of grade dance festival, bulletin boards in general, bulletin boards for student teachers, and the school newspaper; and (3) *responsibility for children*.

The latter duties involve many activities important to the school community notably: (1) regular school routines such as supervising the lunchroom, playground, hallways, stairways, bag lunches; (2) assembly programs including music appreciation programs, the color guard and serving assembly

chairman or song leader; and (3) special services and extra-curricular activities such as supervision of the speech therapy program, individual and group guidance, school banking, and serving as health leaders and counselors.

Miscellaneous Assignments

Some new teachers are performing special teaching assignments along with their regular teaching, such as remedial reading, special experimental reading classes, giving individualized reading instruction, English instruction to a foreign child for three hours per week, film projector instruction to staff members, and science, nature and science, sewing and photography instruction. No comment was made by any of the survey participants pertaining to their feeling of adequacy or lack of it in connection with these assignments.

Miscellaneous assignments in which some beginning teachers serve include guiding teachers from other schools on the intervisitation program, school representatives for hospitalization, the teachers' council, and the PTA; secretary for faculty conferences, and writing news releases for local papers.

Professional Improvement

After school the beginning teacher is a busy person too, with professional, community, and home affairs. A study of these activities shows that they are as varied and sometimes as time consuming as the in-school activities.

Professional activities reported show that 42 per cent of the persons included in the study are engaged in graduate study. Nearly one-eighth are members of professional organizations, one tenth are studying for self-improvement in fields such as conversational Spanish, mental health, piano, first aid, and

workshops for new teachers. Some of the graduates (5.76 per cent) consider concerts, the reading of school publications, and attendance at faculty meetings as their professional activities, while the same per cent do some teaching in their after school hours (arts and crafts at a community center, tutoring a first grader, and teaching at a Hebrew school). Fifty per cent did not indicate their professional activities.

Community Life

Church work involves the largest number of persons (25 per cent) who engage in community activity, although 73.77 per cent or nearly three fourths gave no indication of community participation. A few more than one-tenth of the graduates are assisting the scout organization, 7.69 per cent are working with the PTA and the same per cent are teaching in community centers (art, typing, English to foreigners, adult education).

Only 5.76 per cent listed membership in social clubs, and 3.84 per cent in charitable organizations, and there was one member of a veterans' organization.

Home Responsibility

A majority (55.76 per cent) mentioned that they are housewives, one-tenth of whom are mothers, and 3.84 per cent are widows serving as heads of the household. Miscellaneous home responsibilities include contributing financially, doing the cooking, taking care of an ill relative, and helping with housekeeping. One-third of the persons gave no indication of their home responsibilities.

This survey seems to indicate that the beginning teacher is immediately put to work on a variety of extra school

duties. In addition, many have accepted professional and community responsibilities in their after-school hours, some of which take them back into the school atmosphere as students or teachers. Home responsibilities require the energies of more than the majority.

Further Study Needed

It appears therefore that there are some questions to be answered through further study with regard to the activities of the beginning teacher. Some of these questions are related to the responsibilities of administrators and school officials:

1. How soon should new teachers be given extra assignments?

2. How do the extra assignments affect orientation to teaching?

3. How do the extra assignments affect the actual teaching performance?

4. Do extra assignments promote a feeling of security or job satisfaction?

5. Should there be set up a sliding scale of difficulty or responsibility of duties?

From the standpoint of teacher training institutions, one of the main issues is that of facing the fact that new teachers are required to perform a variety of duties in addition to their grade assignments. This perhaps points to a need for study of the kind of preparation undergraduates should have in order to help them to meet these job requirements.

BOOK REVIEWS

LYTTON STRACHEY: HIS MIND AND ART. By Charles Richard Sanders. New Haven. Yale University Press. 1957. \$6.00.

Those who read *Queen Victoria and Eminent Victorians* when these two volumes first appeared were aware that a new approach to biography was developing. Lytton Strachey blazed a trail that led away from the traditional type of biographical study. It is true that he, and those who followed in his way, toppled many a figure from a pedestal. Whatever 1958 may say about the nature and goal of biography, Strachey remains a pioneer, and a pioneer of vigor, honesty, and accuracy. In this volume, Mr. Sanders looks into the background and values of Strachey and studies the man in relation to his environment and background—William P. Sears

AN INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH PROCEDURES IN EDUCATION. By J. Francis Rumel. N. Y. Harpers. 1958. \$5.50.

Those beginning the scientific study of education and embarking upon research will find this an excellent text. The approach is through scientific method—the basis for all valid research. Both graduate students and those who are entertaining a career in research will follow with ease and profit the

materials of the volume. After an introductory chapter on the nature of the scientific method of research, the author pitches into the core of research—the selection of the problem, the preparation of the research proposal, the collection of data, the analysis and treatment of data, the design of experiments, and the writing of the final report.
—W. P. S.

THE AMERICAN STOCKHOLDER. By J. A. Livingston. Philadelphia. Lippincott. 1958. \$4.95.

American education—from kindergartners to deans of graduate faculties—are, on the whole, woefully ignorant of the world of investment and finance. It is not infrequently that one reads of the demise of some ancient educator and the discovery of not only the carcass but of a sizeable fortune tucked away in a mattress or with the safety of a cracked teapot. *The American Stockholder* tells a great deal about corporations and their workings. The author, the financial editor of the *Philadelphia Bulletin*, demonstrates a keen insight into the corporate mores and practices of today. The book should challenge every educator and should provide him with a sound basis of knowledge when he begins to invest his hard-earned savings.—W. P. S.

The "Organic" Theory of the Teaching of Reading

By FRANK C. WEGENER

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SPECIFIC THEORIES of teaching and learning run the risk of being incomplete and inaccurate when they are without the guidance of a systematic, coherent, and sound philosophy of education. Many of these controversies result from the fact that the conflicting theories in question contain partial truths as opposed to whole truths. When reconstructed within the guiding principles of an adequate philosophy of education, the partial truths can form a sound and unified theory.

The conflict over theories of the teaching of reading illustrates the foregoing contention. Mr. Rudolph Flesch has fanned the flames of controversy on this problem in his popular book, *Why Johnny Can't Read, and What You Can Do About It*. (1) In most convincing terms he contended that American educators have foisted upon us "a Chinese Method" of teaching reading to our youngsters—the substitution of the "word method" for the "alphabetical and phonics" method of teaching reading.

Flesch asserted that this "new word method" has been in the saddle of American education since 1925 when the traditional "alphabetical and phonics" method was suddenly dropped. Since that time we have had more and more need for "remedial reading classes," not only in the public grade

schools but up through college education. This remedial reading program, he contends, is unique to the United States, for in other countries where the alphabetical approach to reading is made they do not have the problem of large numbers of non-readers.

Flesch contended that the "word method" develops into a guessing game for the students. Since they cannot spell out or sound out the letters and syllables, students are forced to figure out from context or, more often, to wait for the teacher to tell them the word. They must remember the words individually, which he believes will not possibly work. Just because it was found that adults read by whole words and whole phrases in their eye movements and mental grasp of the words and phrases, it does not follow that youngsters in the initial process of learning to read should forego the necessary alphabetical and phonics approach. This is *non sequitur*.

We are reminded that the appearance of an alphabet about 1500 B.C. was regarded as a great step forward for civilization because it took man beyond the long and cumbersome method of memorizing literally thousands of hieroglyphics. Man could then use and learn an alphabet which in effect would be a shorthand approach to the learning of thousands of words of a given language.

Yet, in effect, this magnificent discovery and advance has been overthrown by those "modern experts" in reading who have returned to the word method of reading. Flesch argued that the solution of the "reading problem" is just this simple: we must return to an alphabetical and phonics approach to reading instead of the cruel and unworkable method of recent years.

We have all noted the consternation which has been evoked among professional educators by Flesch's charges and the counter charges which have been forthcoming from all camps. Some, of course, have rejected the whole point of Flesch's book as "just another irresponsible attack on American education." Undoubtedly, others have presented various defenses of the word method as opposed to the alphabetical approach. Then, too, it is notable that the attack has resulted in some serious soul-searching among those educators who feel that Flesch is not entirely wrong in his stand. Certainly, there are those who are in flat agreement with him. Defenders of the several theories of teaching-learning theory in general, and teaching of reading in particular, have rushed to the defense of their respective views.

Principles From The Organic Philosophy

How can the Organic Philosophy of Education assist in the successful resolution of this continuing controversy? (2) Or, what is the organic theory of the teaching of reading? If substantial aid can be given in terms of this problem, then we might be persuaded that particular "theories of education" really do need the guidance and wisdom of an over-all, systematic philosophy of education.

In response to this challenge we assert

the immediate necessity of certain organic principles and conceptions which are indispensable to the resolution of this controversy: The Principle of Bipolarity, the co-ordination of "logical" and "psychological" processes, the Principle of Unity and Diversity, and their corollaries of whole-part, organic-atomistic, and conjunctive-disjunctive conceptions. (3) With organic principles and conceptions such as these, I think we can achieve a satisfactory resolution of the reading problem.

The principle of biopolarity is essential to an organic educational philosophy. It contends that reality and experience are characterized by opposites or co-ordinates, such as unity, and diversity, similarity and difference, and sameness and otherness. These bipolar co-ordinates are not 'dualistic' or absolutely inseparable; they are partly dependent, independent, and interdependent. For example, male and female components constitute a bipolar relationship. There is a relative separableness, a relative dependence, and a relative interdependence.

The bipolarity principle is applicable to the educational process in various contexts. When we realize that logical and psychological aspects of the educational process are bipolar in nature, it is easy to see that they are properly co-ordinated. It is an error to *subordinate* one to the other.

One of the perennial problems of philosophy has been that of the one and the many. Is reality a unity or a diversity? The organicist sees reality as a bipolarity of unity and diversity. The learner, for example, is in one sense a unity and in another a diversity; all in all he is an exemplification of the bipolarity of unity and diversity.

The bipolar principle is applicable

also to such relations as: whole and part, organic and atomistic, and the conjunctive and disjunctive. When we see that these are co-ordinate relations, there is no longer a problem of 'whole or part', 'organic or atomistic', or 'conjunctive or disjunctive.' They are legitimate distinctions of organic experience or realities.

At the outset, let us acknowledge the respective merits and validities inherent in both the letter and phonics method defended by Flesch and the opposing word method defended by other authorities in reading. Organically both of these methods are valid when they are viewed as partial processes within the totality of the learning process. By the same token, each theory is invalid, incomplete, and inaccurate when taken exclusively!

Application of Organic Principles

How do our organic principles apply? The teaching-learning process is not singularly "logical" or "psychological" as such. Logical and psychological continuities are bipolar, or a union of opposites, within the learning process. Education involves both analytical or structural intelligibilities and the co-ordination of experiential or functional intelligibilities. There is a "logic of subject matter" which must be taken into account; likewise, there is a co-ordinate "psychology of the learner" which must also be considered. The psychological aspect involves factors of experience, mental habits, attention, effort, interest, motivation, and readiness. They are indispensable parts of the total process; they represent two complementary poles; one without the other results in a very unfortunate monopolarity. In other words, it results in the error of on-sided-

ness, and neglects the realization of bipolarity, or the unity of opposites.

The principles of the Organic Philosophy of Education require that the bipolar hemispheres of total learning must be sustained throughout schooling. As youngsters begin their formal educations they must be gradually introduced to the logic of subject matters as well as to the sequence or ordinary experiences, and their complementary relations. True enough, the proportion of systematic, conceptual learning, or the logic of objective analysis, is comparatively small in the early grades; yet, there is the beginning of an analytical continuity. Likewise, emphasis must be placed on the experimental sequences which are of utmost importance during these early years. Both hemispheres are present throughout schooling.

Learning to read provides the initial opportunity for the child to learn "analytically" and "logically" on the side of the alphabetical and phonics approach, and to learn "functionally" and "experientially" on the side of the word method approach or grasp of meaning approach. Both methods have valid elements when not taken exclusively; when combined, they complement one another and form sound theory.

Hence, the analysis of words by knowing the essential letters, syllables, and sounds is a requisite part of learning to read. Learning to see the parts as they build into whole words, phrases, and sentences, constitutes synthesis. The logical phase of learning sees the cognitive aspect of thinking and learning as involving systematic analysis and synthesis, even in learning the elements of words and language. This is the beginning of the development of the use of analytical *reason*. The actual habits and functions of reading are developed in

the co-ordinate hemisphere of "actual experiences" or ordinary life activities." The latter, of course, means reading whole words, whole phrases, within a meaningful context. One side is analytical and logical, and the other side is functional and experiential; both sides are necessary to the total learning process.

But what of the conflict of the methods? There is no necessary conflict when viewed organically. There are at least two different mind-sets and habits which are working co-operatively in the total process. When you teach children 26 letters which form the basis for 44 basic sounds in speech, and out of which all words in the English language can be formed and read, you are proceeding "analytically and "logically." This step by step alphabetical and phonic approach engenders habits and mind-sets of an analytical character. Each letter is a distinct "gestalt" or configuration; each letter is a whole as well as a part. These analytical skills and understandings are indispensable in learning to read.

The mental operations and mind-sets in the actual processes of experiential and functional reading are quite different, of course. Proper habits of reading require comparatively few eye movements per line, visual and mental grasp of whole words or whole groups of words, attention to whole words and meanings and not to individual letters. Meaningful experiences which accompany such actual reading provide much in the way of readiness, motivation, attention, and purpose. These factors which we might well term the "psychological" and "functional" side of the teaching of reading are requisite in the total process.

Using our organic Principle of Bi-

polarity, then, we see two different but interdependent poles of the teaching of reading. They are in one sense separable, and in another sense reciprocal. The alphabetical and phonics emphasis fosters the analytical and rational factors; the whole word emphasis fosters the experiential and functional. The former falls within the "logic of subject matter" and the latter is embraced in the realm of "ordinary experience." The two sets of skills and mental operations involved are different, but they are not incompatible. Viewed as diverse parts of a whole learning process, they are organically complementary. The trouble begins when one approach is taken to the exclusion of the other.

The controversy disappears when we see that there are partial validities in both theories. Learning the individual letters and sounds which make up whole words is admittedly "atomistic" in one sense, but in a perfectly necessary and legitimate sense. Critics are afraid that the letter method will engender habits of "atomistic" reading and the failure to grasp "wholes." But this is an unnecessary fear, when we realize that reading or seeing things "atomistically" or "organically," as parts or as wholes, shifts with our purposes. The child may shift into low gear when he spells or sounds out a new word, but he then shifts into high gear as he reads familiar words in terms of meaning. The two habits of thought are not mutually destructive. They can be co-operative.

Learning to read, then, is both atomistic and organic; it involves analysis of component parts, or letters, and the organic grasp of whole words in meaningful sequence in actual reading. Analogously, the study of grammar is analytical and logical; these habits of analysis are different from the habits of ordinary

conversation. Analytical grammar complements functional verbal expression; we accept the logic of grammar and the functional aspects of language as reciprocal. Why then do we not by the same token accept the logic of the alphabetical approach as complementary with and reciprocal with the experiential or functional approach to reading? We should from the organic point of view.

In other words we are concerned in the matter of learning letters and words with "the disjunctive and the conjunctive." Formidable as these terms may seem, they simply indicate that we may choose to see things in their "separability" or in their togetherness." Organically, we contend that we must see things both ways—in their disjunctive separability, and in their conjunctive togetherness. The human body, for example, can be considered in its unity and in its

connectedness; on the other hand, we may choose to see the diversity or plurality of the parts which make up the body. Actually, there is bipolarity of unity and diversity, of whole and parts, of togetherness and separability. This is the essence of organic philosophical thinking.

The resolution of practical educational problems then requires an over-all philosophy of education. In this case, the Organic Theory of Reading concludes that: (1) The alphabetical, phonics, approach to the teaching of reading is indispensable in the logical aspect; (2) the experiential, psychological, "wholeness" approach is also requisite in the functional sense; and, (3) that the two approaches must be coordinated so that the bipolarity of the "logical" and "psychological" aspects of the learning process are jointly realized.

REFERENCES

1. Flesch, Rudolph. *Why Johnny Can't Read, and What You Can Do About It*. New York: Harper and Brothers., 1955.
2. Wegener, Frank C. *The Organic Philosophy of Education*. William C. Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa, 1957.
3. These principles cannot be discussed adequately in the context of this brief article. The interested reader is referred to the full exposition given in the book cited above in footnote number two.

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What Schools Are Doing In Promoting Physical Fitness

By GUY WAGNER*

"The health of a people is really the foundation upon which all their happiness and all their powers as a State depend."

—Disraeli

SUPPOSE ONE WERE to observe a hundred physical education programs selected at random throughout the country. There is little doubt but that there would be a wide difference in the nature of these programs in terms of such factors as time allotments, range of activities, emphasis on athletics, attention to health habits, adequacy of facilities, and quality of instruction. Probably the observer would culminate his visits with the feeling, "If only *all* schools could have the excellent programs which are found in the best!"

Threading throughout the top-level programs, which are represented by the reviews presented herein, the following common characteristics stand out as of particular significance:

1. All good physical education programs emphasize its importance in the development of emotional, social and mental growth as well as physical fitness itself.
2. The way in which physical education teachers work with their pupils is extremely important in terms of pupils' mental health.
3. The adequate physical education program will do much in bringing about a healthy school morale.
4. The physical fitness of *all* pupils should be a corollary of a high-level sports program. For this reason intramural activities are in the ascendency. In addition, more and more attention is being given to individual body building activities, such as apparatus work.
5. Cleanliness, good sportsmanship, and effective human relations are integral parts of a sound physical education program.
6. The physical fitness of teachers as well as pupils should be the concern of the school, both in terms of teacher efficiency and teacher example.¹
7. Physical education programs should develop attitudes and physical skills which will have a good carry-over into adult life.

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1. The 1957 Yearbook of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, entitled *Fit to Teach*, is primarily concerned with the health of the teacher and outlines personal, administrative, organizational, and community responsibilities in this connection.

8. The good physical education program will help individuals make adjustments for right living now and in the future. It will make healthful living a habit.
9. A good physical education program is not haphazard; instead it has a systematic progression throughout the grades in the difficulty and range of activities.
10. A well-balanced physical educational program gives reasonable attention to co-educational activities at the secondary level as well as at the elementary level.
11. The physical education program for girls is not a copy of the physical education program for boys, although it may be overlapping in many respects. It differs chiefly in that it respects the femininity of the girls.
12. The physically handicapped are given particular thought and consideration in the good physical education program both in terms of appropriate activities and rest; also in opportunities for achievements which command the respect of the handicapped child's peers.

Grosse Pointe Public School System, *Physical Education for Early Elementary School Children*. Grosse Pointe, Michigan, 1955, mimeographed, 106 pp.

The teacher writers of this helpful publication point out that physical education is not an isolated subject. Instead it is related to all phases of the curriculum and can contribute importantly to the total educational program. "However, if children are to receive the greatest benefits from physical education, each phase of the program must be well planned and should allow the utmost opportunity for progression in experiences." It is pointed out that advancement of some phases of physical education can be seriously retarded when there is undue repetition or when the activities are too difficult for a particular age level.

There are thirty-five sections in this

curriculum guide, including such interesting titles as: (1) classification of physical education activities, (2) teaching the basic skills of locomotion, (3) story plays, (4) mimetics, (5) simplified games, (6) progression in early elementary rhythms, (7) recommended singing games, (8) self-testing activities and stunts, and (9) progression in tumbling.

Missouri State Department of Education, *A Guide for Physical Education in the Elementary School*. Jefferson City, Missouri, 1956, 280 pp.

This guide presents a well-balanced program of activities for grades one through six. As is typical of carefully planned physical education guides there is a progression program with a wide range of activities based on the age characteristics and needs of children.

The writers point out that physical education, although based on physical activities, is designed to develop our children mentally, emotionally, and socially as well as in the physical aspects of their growth. "The skills, interests and attitudes acquired in activity should help the participant to possess a healthy and efficient body, an alert and creative mind, emotions that are well under control, and social behavior that is sound for living and serving well in a democratic society."

This very thorough publication, produced jointly by classroom teachers and specialists in health and physical education, presents a wealth of concrete help in such areas as: (1) organization and administration of the program, (2) teaching suggestions, and (3) analysis of skills in rhythmic activities, game techniques, and group activities.

In addition, one entire section is devoted to a discussion of age characteristics of the elementary school child. Specific activities are recommended for use in each of the grades, one through six. There is also an entire section listing teaching aids such as homemade equipment and games for special occasions. The publication concludes by suggesting ways for the evaluation of the local physical fitness program.

St. Louis Public Schools, *A Course of Study in Elementary School Physical Education*. St. Louis, Missouri, 1955-56.

This course of study is in two parts—Volume II, No. 1 for the kindergarten-primary grades (95 pages) and Volume II, No. 2 for the intermediate grades (148 pages). These were published in 1955 and 1956 respectively.

It is pointed out that physical education has in recent years acquired a broader meaning and a greater significance than a program designed for physical fitness alone. The aim of the St. Louis program "is to develop active minds and bodies by promoting such physical activities, skills, attitudes, and knowledges as will enable the individual to make adjustments for right living now and in the future."

This course of study is a graded program which should be adapted to the school situation, the time of the year, and the individual needs of the child. There is little duplication of activities in the different grades because it is felt that the progress of the child will be more rapid and his skills and interest more varied if there is a definite content for each grade. Any activities from previous grades, if still interesting to the child, may be used as supplementary. A variety of activities have been included in each grade, and the teacher should choose from each group those more suitable for the class.

A successful physical education program depends on careful selection of activities, sufficient development of skill, and good teaching. This course provides for the first two of these requisites, the third is in the hands of the teacher and the principal who supervise the program in each school.

Seattle Public Schools, *Games Activities for the Intermediate Grades*. Seattle, Washington, 1955, 214 pp.

This manual is the outgrowth of a combined effort of many persons. The material was gathered, tried, and then presented to a Steering Committee, which further evaluated and "tailored

the material to fit the format of the manual."

This publication emphasizes the point of view of most forward-looking physical education programs today. It points out that schools must first understand the physical education objectives are to be achieved in light of the needs and interests of the age groups being taught. Furthermore, the major objectives of physical education "are basically the same as for other courses of the curriculum." The differences lie only in the methods, materials, types of experience, and space needed to achieve their aims.

When a physical education program is properly planned, organized, and presented it promotes positive growth in the physical, mental, emotional, and social facets of each child's individual make-up. In order to meet these growth needs the program must be one of wide range and balance. The teacher should constantly be on guard lest his own interests result in a one-sided program, for he is the only medium that converts the material at hand to the needs and interest of the child.

The first twenty-six pages are given over to an excellent presentation of how to plan, organize and carry out a physical educational program. This is followed by nearly a hundred pages devoted to seasonal sports. Other sections deal with: (1) circle-tag and goal games, (2) relays, (3) rainy day and limited area games, (4) self-testing activities and stunts, and (5) intramural athletics. A unique and valuable feature is the carefully developed index of several hundred topics.

The Seattle schools have another valuable physical education publication entitled *Rhythmic Activities for the Primary Grades*, 1954, 65 pages.

Louisville Public Schools, *Physical Education Activities for Junior High School Boys and Girls*. Louisville 8, Kentucky, 1956, 153 pp.

This excellent guide is a revision of an earlier publication. It was prepared for the purpose of helping physical education teachers in organizing their les-

son plans so as to get the maximum use of the facilities available and still maintain well-balanced programs. All of the ideas, suggestions, and materials included are the result of a questionnaire sent to the junior high school physical education teachers of the city. It is a good example of the "grass roots" approach to curriculum construction, showing as it does the co-operative activity of many teachers working toward a common goal.

The writers define physical education as "that part of education which has to do with the whole body of the individual, its movement, its care, and its use." Some of the major aims of the Louisville physical education program are: (1) to satisfy the physical, social and emotional needs of the junior high school students, (2) to create a situation in which healthful living will become a habit, (3) to develop citizens who practice the principles of fair play, honesty, and sportsmanship, and (4) to create a lasting interest in physical education activities so that they will be carried over into adult life.

The publication is divided into such sections as girls' activities, boys' activities, activities for both girls and boys, group games, intramural programs, and instructional materials.

Long Beach Public Schools, *Guide to the Teaching of Physical Education for Junior High School Girls*. Long Beach, California, 1956, mimeographed, 92 pp.

As with all Long Beach curriculum materials, this publication is only available in selected depositories throughout the country.

This course of study presents a rich and varied program; it is extremely well organized; it presents only those activities which are particularly useful in meeting the needs of younger adolescent girls; it is a co-operative project and each teacher is expected to adapt the suggestions to her own individual group and situation.

As with other similar publications, it is pointed out that an effective program of physical education "has the same

broad, over-all purpose as any adequate, far-reaching educational program in a democratic society; namely, the guidance and development of all youth toward physical, mental, social, and emotional competence."

The ten major sections of this publication are: (1) guidelines, (2) organization and administration, (3) orientation unit, (4) unit on apparatus activities, (5) unit on stunts and tumbling, (6) unit on rhythms, (7) unit on team sports, (8) unit on individual sports, (9) unit on posture and body mechanics, and (10) unit on health and safety.

Cleveland Public Schools, *Teaching Guide for Boys Physical Education*. Cleveland, Ohio, 1955, 118 pp.

This teacher's guide for boys' physical education in the Cleveland Junior and Senior High Schools presents a broad and adaptable program, providing the minimum essentials for each of the various activities in the program. "It is expected that each pupil participating in these activities will satisfactorily master minimum essentials before he is allowed to progress into more advanced forms of the program." There are opportunities for organized leaders' groups and also a wide offering of activities on the intramural level.

The basic aim of the Cleveland physical program is, "through the medium of wholesome and interesting physical activities to afford an opportunity for the individual or group to act in situations that are physically wholesome, mentally stimulating and socially sound; and to establish maximum facilities and opportunities for wholesome self-expression, under qualified leadership to the end that physical, mental, and social growth and development best lead to complete living."

This teacher's guide is divided into sections as follows: (1) general educational objectives, (2) a suggested cyclic seasonal program, (3) apparatus and tumbling, (4) team games, (5) individual sports, (6) marching, (7) intramurals, (8) intensified physical education, (9) tests and measurements.

Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, *Physical Education—Secondary School Program*, Bulletin 311. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, 1956, 149 pp.

The writers of this very thorough and well-organized curriculum guide emphasize that a comprehensive program to meet the health and fitness needs of children should among other things, provide for: (1) adequate time allotment for health instruction and physical education, athletic and recreational activities for all children and youth, and participation in solving individual and community health problems; (2) planning for inspection of the school plant, and a planned program to insure and to utilize a safe, sanitary, and healthful school environment, including transportation; (3) thorough school medical examination including necessary immunization and laboratory procedures; (4) special testing programs and treatment as needed for abnormalities such as those of vision, hearing, and speech; (5) cumulative health records including nutritional and mental status; (6) a school lunch program developed as part of the total educational program; (7) dental care; (8) mental hygiene; (9) care for exceptional children with crippling diseases, especially rheumatic fever; (10) treatment as needed for other adverse health conditions as tuberculosis and venereal disease; (11) health service for school personnel; and (12) an organized program of parent education and participation.

In the introductory part, it is pointed out that the scope of physical education is such that it contributes to good citizenship, to health education, to recreation, to leadership education, to safety education, and to guidance.

Chapter II gives detailed instructions as to the planning and administering of the physical education program. Here such matters as program planning and the selection and organization of activities are developed.

Chapters III and IV present the physical education program in some detail. Another chapter is devoted entirely

to the recreational program and there is an extensive listing of references and instructional materials. Many educators will be interested in the cardinal athletic principles and standards in athletics for boys, and standards for girls' sports as found in Appendix D.

Virginia State Department of Education, *Physical Education—Grades VII-XII*. Richmond, 1955, 435 pp.

The State Department points out that this guide is to assist local schools in planning and developing their physical education offerings. It is understood that teachers and school administrators will want to use the suggestions in relation to their local needs. For to be most effective, a program must originate in the local school and community.

The writers point out that "It has long been recognized that a well-planned physical education offering, embodying rich and varied experiences, provides a very helpful means of guiding pupils through successive stages of growth and development so that they gain, in addition to greater neuromuscular skill and organic strength, more of the social, mental and emotional characteristics and qualities essential to a well-rounded personality." An important emphasis is that although pupils of high school age may have many common characteristics it is also true that varying degrees of individual differences exist. "The good school recognizes this and plans its physical education program accordingly." Opportunities are provided for every pupil to achieve success to the extent of his capabilities.

Highlights of this very helpful publication include a "Chart of Traits Which Characterize High School Youths" in terms of their (1) characteristics, (2) interests, (3) needs, and (4) activities. Part II is an extensive treatment of the physical educational offerings. Part III is a descriptive analysis of the fundamental skills. Part IV presents many physical education activities such as team sports, rhythmic activities, social and recreational activities, and conditioning exercises. Part V gives

a most complete listing of such supplementary materials as equipment and supplies, recommendations for playgrounds, safety suggestions, intramural activities, interschool activities, and suggestions for physical education demonstrations. A unique feature is the detailed index to skills and activities.

Several curriculum guides came to the writer's attention after the manuscript for this column was written.

These are: (1) San Diego County Schools, *Physical Education*, San Diego, California, 1957, (2) Oakland Public Schools, *Guide for Instruction in Team Games, Individual, Dual and Recreational Games*, Oakland, California, 1957, (3) Los Angeles City Schools, *Physical Education Teaching Guide*, Los Angeles, California, 1957, and (4) Fresno City Unified School District, *Course of Study in Boys' Physical Education*, Fresno, California, 1957.

BOOK REVIEWS

HOME ECONOMICS: CAREERS AND HOME-MAKING. By Olive A. Hall. N. Y. John Wiley. 1958. \$4.25.

The point of view held by the author of this comprehensive and carefully organized text is that training in home economics serves the dual purpose of preparing for personal and home life as well as a career. Brief chapters on home economics in higher education and on higher education for woman lead to a very interesting chapter on scope and development of home economics. These chapters are followed by chapters dealing with problems of vocational choice, the profession of homemaking, and the outlook for teachers in the various areas of home economics. The entire approach is based on sound and tested home economics theory and principles. An excellent text for undergraduate students in home economics in both liberal arts colleges and in teacher education centers.—W. P. S.

THE GREAT DAYS. By John Dos Passos. N. Y. Sagamore Press. 1958. \$4.50.

John Dos Passos is one of our foremost novelists. It was in the 1920's that he first began to attract attention. *Three Soldiers*, *Manhattan Transfer*, and *U. S. A.* are outstanding novels and they have done much to

establish the position of Dos Passos as a creative novelist. *The Great Days* is a simple and moving story of mature love and loneliness. The story is that of an ex-celebrity who, during an interlude of drinking and love in Havana, tries to rekindle both his youth and his achievements as he recounts to himself the "great days" of the past.—W. P. S.

AN INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATION IN MODERN AMERICA. By Gordon C. Lee. N. Y. Holt. 1957. \$5.25.

This is a revision of a text that first appeared in 1953. The book offers a survey of American education and is designed especially for students who are contemplating a career in education. The nature of contemporary American society is first presented as a background against which the purposes of American education are discussed. The student is next asked to study the organization and administration of education. A very direct and helpful chapter considers the preparation and selection of teachers for our schools. Conflicting purposes and pressing problems are pointed out throughout the text and they are presented in such a manner as to encourage discussion, thought, and critical appraisals.—W. P. S.

Franklin Watts



FRANKLIN WATTS, the founder-president of Franklin Watts, Inc., decided when he started a publishing business of his own in 1942 that he would confine his publishing to books that he could understand himself.

The best known publications of his firm have been the famous FIRST BOOKS. Although the title, "First Book," seems obvious now, until Franklin Watts started this Series it had only been used in connection with adult books and had never been used as a series title. "First Book" was first used when a relatively simple manuscript on flying was accepted for publication. It had no title. So, after consulting cata-

logues and finding that "First" had not been used as a series title, the FIRST BOOKS began and have now extended through ninety titles now published or announced for 1958 publication.

The concept basic to FIRST BOOKS, as evolved by Franklin Watts, his wife-associate, Helen Hoke Watts and the Watts editors, is to present non-fiction material in as simple a manner as the subject permits. Never were these books considered to be first or second-grade readers. If technical language is required, it is used. These books are not "written down." Rather, they are for children and adults who are looking for a good solid introduction to a subject,—From BASEBALL to SPACE TRAVEL to THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

With this concept in mind, the range of subjects is almost unlimited. Any and all subjects of interest to children through the elementary grades can be included in this Series. The all-time best seller in the Series has been THE FIRST BOOK OF STONES, and currently THE FIRST BOOK OF AMERICAN HISTORY, by Henry Steele Commager, is selling equally as well.

This spring the list includes such subjects as varied as THE FIRST BOOK OF ENGLAND, THE FIRST BOOK OF FAIRY TALES, and THE FIRST BOOK OF WORLD WAR II. Mr. Watts says that he will not attempt to predict which of these three will find the largest audience as all appear to be subjects in great demand.

Another group of books, THE TERRIFIC TRIPLE TITLES came into being in 1949. Phyllis Fenner had com-

piled an anthology of horse stories; but there was no title. One day Helen Hoke Watts realized that she had been humming "horses, horses, horses, crazy over horses, horses, horses." Her subconscious had given her the title. She said, "Why not call it, HORSES, HORSES, HORSES?" Everyone agreed that the title certainly was distinctive and appropriate. Since then sixteen titles have been brought out in this Series from AMERICA, AMERICA, AMERICA to YOUTH, YOUTH, YOUTH. Of course, this tripling of a title cannot be used on all subject; so only one or two a year are published.

"Series" publication has its advantages, according to Mr. Watts, but it also has its limitations. The Watts list has always had a number of titles that are completely removed from any series. One recent title, ABNER'S CABIN, by

Alf Evers and illustrated by Leonard Weisgard, is a delightful story of what happened over generations to one small cabin. Another is Peggy Bacon's THE GOOD AMERICAN WITCH, a modern version of the classical fairy tale, illustrated most appropriately by this fine author-artist. Jeanne Bendick, who had always written and illustrated non-fiction, had a lot of fun doing THE GOOD KNIGHT GHOST, the hilarious adventures of a ghostly knight and dragon in a present-day museum.

Franklin Watts has always felt that publishing books for children has been a most rewarding aspect of his business career as true merit is always rewarded. The people who work with books and children always want the best and see to it that the best books receive the rewards they deserve in having a wide, enthusiastic, and appreciative audience.

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Letter to the Editor

Dear Editor:

I am writing as both an educator and mother of three young children. Our three children (boy 7 yrs., girl 9 yrs., and boy 11 yrs.), although related through blood, genes, and raised under similar environmental conditions and influences, are as different as "night and day"—in temperament, personality, interests, and ability. Their mental capacity, according to Wechslers' individual tests, are high. Now, if three children living within the same environmental influence plus having a near and high aptitude for learning are so completely individual and different in their entire "make-up"—how much more so will children in the classroom differ from each other?"

How are we teachers providing for each individual child in reading? Grouping children within the classroom is the present system of providing for individual differences today. Some teachers have taken a step further and have made their groups flexible.

Grouping is a start in the right direction but we need to go further than grouping—to get to the individual child. In the January 1958 issue of "Education," May Lazar of the City of New York, has written an article explaining in detail the program of "Individualized Reading." This is an excellent article for teachers in all fields and branches of education to read, study

and put into practice. The elementary schools that have started the "Individualized Reading Program" have only the most favorable reports about it.

To ensure a successful "Individualized Reading" program within the school, it must be continued and carried over into the home environment of each child. This necessitates the informing and guiding the parents of each child. Informing and guiding parents doesn't mean—having a sociable and friendly little chat with parents concerning their child—it means *educating the thinking and planning habits of parents concerning their individual child's needs*. Included in the planning habits must be positive ways and means to help the home-libraries to grow and develop with each individual child according to his interests and independent reading level.

There are many wonderful, well-written and readable books of all kinds—and written on almost any subject or interest a child may acquire or have these days. Our problem is how can parents be taught the value and the selecting of books that will fill the need of their individual child—when at home—to ensure a well-rounded program in "Individualized Reading?"

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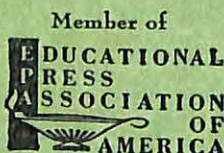
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READING AND STUDY

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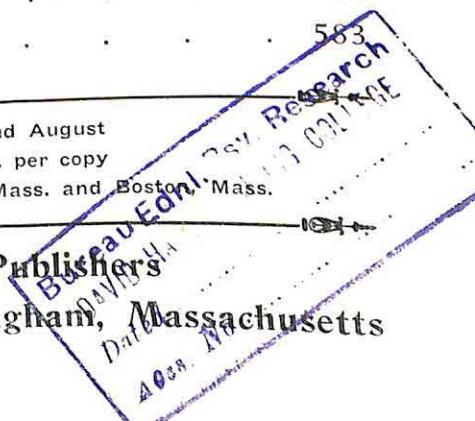
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EDUCATION

VOL. 78

MAY, 1958

No. 9

Phonics *and* Word Method: Origin *and* Development

By NILA BANTON SMITH
Professor of Education
Director, The Reading Institute
New York University

Beginnings of Phonics

ABOUT four hundred years ago a scholarly school-master in Rothenburg, Germany conceived the idea of teaching children the sounds of letters as an aid in learning to read. His name was Valentin Ickelsamer and his use of phonics is described in the first German Grammar, a book that was published under his authorship in 1534.

Ickelsamer's grammar was called DEUTSCH GRAMMATICA. In this book he treated orthography and etymology—and a third topic which is of great significance in the chronological development of reading methods. This topic was "A New Method of Teaching Reading Based on the Phonetic Value of Letters." According to this method Ickelsamer started children out with "words in which the vowels had the same values." After learning the sounds of the vowels, they were taught the sounds of the consonants. In so far as the writer is aware this is the first mention of phonics in the history of reading instruction.

The idea of teaching letter sounds

did not take hold, however, and the spelling method prevailed throughout Europe for many years after Ickelsamer propounded his plan for teaching phonics. In America it was two and a half centuries after Ickelsamer's book appeared before phonics worked its way into the classrooms of our then young nation.

Previous to the Revolution reading was taught throughout the colonies by the ABC method. Children first learned their ABCs, then as each new word was presented to them they were taught to spell it. "C-a-t cat" was the accepted order of procedure in Colonial reading instruction.

Following the Revolution, American teachers decried the use of the English reading texts which had been used exclusively in our schools up to that time. And one of these teachers—Noah Webster—prepared the first reading texts to be authored by an American citizen. In these texts Webster introduced phonics—but not as an aid in learning to read, rather as a medium for unifying American language.

In the preface of his famous speller Webster expressed his foremost aim in this way:

"To diffuse a uniformity and purity of language in America—to destroy the provincial prejudices that originate in trifling differences of dialect, and produce reciprocal ridicule—to promote the interest of literature and harmony of the United States—is the most ardent wish of the Author; and it is his highest ambition to deserve the approbation and encouragement of his countrymen."¹

The medium which Webster proposed to use in accomplishing this aim was to begin "with the elements of the language and explain the powers of the letters." This he did in his "Speller" which really was the first reader that children were to use when they entered school. They were still to learn the alphabet as a starting point, but in addition to learning the names of the letters, they were also to learn the sounds of the letters and of letter combinations. The learning of these sounds was supposed in turn to unify and purify American language.

While Webster's aim for introducing phonics into American schools was a lofty and patriotic one he came precariously close to failure in realizing it. His books did not receive the immediate "approbation and encouragement" of his countrymen.

He had prepared three books: a spelling book, a treatise on Grammar, and an advanced book on "Lessons in Reading and Speaking." All three books were bound together in one volume and titled GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE,² a name advised by the President of Harvard University whose learned counsel had been sought by the author. Furthermore, Webster's picture appeared on the

first page of the volume. Since the art of engraving was practically undeveloped at that time, the picture had been reproduced by a wooden plate and the wooden plate was not suitable for depicting anything so intricate as a mass of tiny strands of hair. Hence the picture showed a man with pointed, horn-like spikes standing upright on his scalp where hair should be.

Newspapers and magazines of the time were filled with a flood of criticisms concerning the new books. Most children attended school only long enough to master one reader, and "Why should be be forced to buy three books to get one?" they asked. The title of the book they thought was "high-filutin," and did not fit in with the ideals of the common man in the new democracy." The photograph of "the author with horns on his head" was the object of widespread derision and fun-poking.

After seven years of gloomy failure the books were taken over by a different publisher and revised. This time the horn-headed portrait was omitted and the books were bound in three separate covers. Each book was then given its own distinctive name. The first book in the series now appeared as THE AMERICAN SPELLING BOOK.¹ This beginning book was encased in brown cardboard covers concealed with a coating of pale blue paper—and it was this volume that was destined to become the famous old "Blue-Back Speller."

Gradually this book became popular. Finally its widespread acceptance caused it to enact in this period the stellar role which THE NEW ENGLAND PRIMER had enacted in the preceding period. Royalties from this "Speller" enabled Webster to support his family for twenty years while he was writing his

dictionary. In writing to a friend Webster said,

"... for nearly thirty years, returns of the numbers printed, enable me to state, with tolerable certainty, that the whole number published cannot fall much short of ten millions of copies."³

So we may know that ten million American boys and girls learned to use phonics while working with the old Blue-Back Speller. For several years, however, the phonic method was not used for the purpose of aiding children to work out the pronunciation of unrecognized words which they met in reading. It was used in realizing Webster's patriotic aim of unifying spoken language in America. As the years rolled by, however, patriotism and phonics parted ways. Phonics then continued under the sponsorship of pedagogy. Pedagogy gave phonics its new function—that of helping children to attain independence in attacking new words while reading. In this role phonics has continued its long trek through American classrooms from post-Revolutionary days to the present time.

Beginnings of the Word Method

During the 1840's many American educators visited experimental schools in Prussia and Switzerland and returned with enthusiastic reports of what they had seen. These experimental schools were largely under the influence of Pestalozzi, and Pestalozzi advocated teaching reading by presenting an object or a picture together with a word which represented it. Our educators who saw this method in use thought it was much more sensible than starting children out with the ABCs and they said so in no uncertain terms in speeches which they gave and articles which they wrote upon their return to America. Thus the

idea of the word method started to filter through.

It was during this period of agitation that readers based on the word method began to appear. In John Russell Webb's primer titled *THE NEW WORD METHOD* (1846), we find this amusing account:

The Origin of the Word Method

(The following brief history of the Word Method is published at the request of many friends of this system of teaching. Its author, Mr. Russell, is a nephew of the man after whom our author was named.—PUBLISHERS)

On an early summer morning of 1846, a young man, barely twenty-one years of age, was reading a newspaper in the sitting-room of his boarding place. He was the teacher of the village school.

From early boyhood he had been regarded as "odd." He did not do, he did not think, as boys of his age generally did. Often he was reprov'd for finding fault with what others considered "well enough." He would reply: "If we could see no defects, we would make no improvements." Many were the little devices, to save labor and give better results, seen on the home farm.

While awaiting breakfast, as already mentioned, a little girl, four or five years old, climbed into his lap as she had often climbed before. Her mother was in the kitchen preparing the breakfast; her father, in the yard milking the cow.

The teacher laid down his paper and began to talk to the child. The father was mentioned, what he was doing, and the cow was talked about. Just then his eye caught the word *cow*, on the paper he had laid down. He took it up and pointed out the word to the child, again calling attention to the cow,

and to this word as the name of the animal her papa was milking. Soon she looked up into the teacher's face; her eyes kindled with intelligence; she caught the paper, jumped out of his lap and ran to her mother, exclaiming as she ran: "I know what it means; I know what it means. It is a cow, just like what papa is milking!" and she pointed out the word to her mother.

Many a boy and many a man before Newton had seen an apple fall. It may be that many a teacher had done just what this teacher did; but into him the circumstances had flashed an idea. He at once began to experiment, not only with the little four-year-old girl, but with the beginners in the school. The lessons were prepared in the evening, and in the morning printed on the blackboard, and he, himself, taught them to the children with the most marked—the most wonderful success. There were no unpleasant tones, no drawling. On the contrary, the children read in pleasant natural tones, giving the emphasis and inflections of the playground.

From time to time these lessons were printed and formed page or hand cards. The children became very much interested in reading them. They read them in and out of school. They read them anywhere—everywhere one would listen. They took their cards with them to the table—to bed, as little girls sometimes do their dolls.

At first all the parents were very much pleased. But, alas! there was trouble ahead. It was soon discovered that the children could not spell the words—that they did not even know the names of the letters! Some of the parents "waited on the teacher," and left with him unpleasant memories. Others had faith that "That teacher knows what

he is about." There was a good deal of talking, and what "the teacher" was doing became noised abroad.

That fall a Teachers' Institute was held at Watertown, twelve miles away. Our teacher was sent for. They wanted to know what the "new thing" was. For a week it was explained, illustrated, discussed. Then the following resolution was passed:

Resolved, That having heard an exposition of a new method of teaching children to read, by J. Russell Webb, we are of opinion that the interests of our schools require its publication, and we pledge ourselves to use efforts to introduce its use into our schools should it be published.

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be signed by our chairman and secretary and presented to Mr. Webb.

E. S. Barnes, Chairman

J. L. Montgomery, Secretary

Watertown, N. Y.,
October 20, 1846

A Watertown bookseller (Joel Greene) was present. He offered to publish an edition at his own expense—and he did, that fall, 1846. This edition bore the title: "John's First Book; or, The Child's First Reader."

The *New York School Journal* says: "That book was the means of a great reform. Millions of children have been saved years of drudgery by the use of the method it proposed, and Mr. Webb is entitled to unlimited praise."

And this is how the Word Method originated, and how it was born into the world. Since then it has written its own history.⁴

Webb was not wholly deserving of the great distinction which "the nephew of the man after whom he was named" confers upon him. Worcester had previously advocated the word method and

Bumstead had already published his primer based on this method. Webb may have developed his ideas independently of the others, but at least he did so contemporaneously with them. The account, nevertheless, is enlightening in that it shows the seriousness with which this change of method was regarded.

The advent of the word method was so startling that a cursory examination of the writings on this subject would leave one with the impression that the entire procedure for teaching reading was revolutionized by its introduction. As a matter of fact, it affected only the beginning stages of reading instruction and was not felt at all in the methods used in connection with the advanced grades.

Each Method Takes An Extreme Spurt

As time went by many of the advocates of the Word Method expanded this method into the sentence method and the story method as an expression of their philosophy that, "The first principle to be observed in teaching reading is that things are recognized by wholes." The protagonists of this philosophy had children memorize entire stories like "The Little Red Hen" as first steps in reading. Later the children would read the long selections which they had memorized. Finally the teacher would break the stories down into sentences and words.

Simultaneously with this extreme emphasis on extended applications of the word method, another group developed elaborate phonetic methods which refined, stressed and amplified previous practices in regard to teaching children the sounds of letters as a first step in learning to read.

Rebecca Pollard, one of the chief proponents of the synthetic method ex-

pressed this extreme new emphasis very well in a manual which she published in 1889. Among other things, Miss Pollard said:

Make reading of the first importance. As in music, let there be scales to practice; drills in articulation; a *thorough preparation* for reading before the simplest sentence is attempted.

Instead of teaching the word as a whole and afterward subjecting it to phonic analysis, is it not infinitely better to take the sounds of the letters for our starting point, and with these sounds lay a foundation firm and broad, upon which we can build whole families of words for instant recognition?⁵

Thus it was that the two methods of teaching reading became a controversial issue. Thousands of teachers began reading instruction with the word method modified to a story method firm in the conviction that this was *the* one best method. Thousands of others started their first graders off sounding letters, and they were equally positive that this was *the* one best method. For thirty years each of these two types of methods vied for supremacy in American schools.

Moderation and Reconciliation

Slowly and gradually the two viewpoints became more subdued. Each group began to see some value in the method used by the other. At present we still use the word method and we still use phonics but not as disparate, antithetic, and mutually exclusive methods.

Our beginning reading instruction is pretty generally concerned with the word method. It is even extended to the story and sentence methods. But instead of having children memorize long folk tales as a preliminary step, the teacher gives them an interesting experience and

lets them make up a short story about it which they read as a unit. Then she proceeds to aid them in analyzing this short composition into sentences, phrases and words even as the teacher of *The Little Red Hen* did when she was using the story extension of the word method.

Through their experiences in reading stories which they have made up children develop interest in reading, discover that reading symbols can convey meanings and acquire a beginning vocabulary. This, modern psychology tells us is infinitely better than initiating children into reading by having them engage in the meaningless and dull task of memorizing letter sounds—a process which may be likened to learning to knit without yarn.

But the phonic method does have a place and is still used. When children have developed a desire to read and

have mastered the fundamental mechanics of reading most teachers begin to teach phonics functionally as needed to children who are sufficiently mature to take it. Such phonics teaching continues on through the elementary grades and in many instances even into high school. This is quite a contrast to the earlier practice of teaching phonics only as an approach to reading. Phonics is now taught over a longer period of time than previously, and is taught functionally and contextually rather than as an isolated exercise in memorizing sounds.

And so both phonics and the word method continue on but not as separate methods, not taught in the same way as the past, nor with the use of the same content. The present-day teacher fits bits of each method into ever changing mosaics as they best serve the reading needs and maturation levels of her pupils.

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Why Children Have Trouble *in* Reading

By WALTER B. BARBE
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THE PROCESS of learning to read is not solely the responsibility of the classroom teacher, as it was 25 years ago. The goal of being able to read well necessitates close cooperation between the school and the home. Only if both teachers and parents understand this interrelationship, and the responsibilities of each toward solving the problems, will poor reading be minimized.

Teachers are doing a better job of teaching all children to read, in spite of almost insurmountable obstacles. Overcrowded classrooms, an increase in the duties assigned to the school, and more interruptions have all failed to daunt the teachers ability to teach reading.

The poor reader of a generation ago was a child who could not read; the poor reader of today is a child who does not read well. This change has necessitated a changing of our teaching goals. The reasons why children of a generation ago did not learn to read are different from the reasons why some children of today have difficulty learning to read.

Lack of Interest

When asked if he liked to read, a young boy at the Reading Center in Chattanooga replied, "I'd like to read if I knew how." The only sensible answer to this statement would be "Well, who wouldn't." It is a basic principle of human nature that we like to do

those things in which we are successful and do not like to do those things in which we fail. A child who knows how to read well likes to read. The child who does not know how to read certainly cannot be expected to say that reading is his favorite pastime or that he likes to sit down with a book and struggle through it. It should be a challenge to all of us as teachers to teach children how to read so that they can like this wonderful world of books in which there is so much enjoyment.

When adults are asked if they like to do a particular task, rather than merely reply, "No," a more honest answer would be to say, as this child said, "I would if I knew how." Ability and interest definitely go together. The more interest which can be developed, the more easily effective reading skills can be learned.

Another amazing thing about interest is that the more interest the teacher and the parents have in reading, the more easily interest is developed in the child. There are many teachers who actually never do any formal teaching of reading and yet many of their children learn to read. Examining such groups invariably indicates that the children are in contact with individuals who are highly interested in reading. This can be successful with many children. There are others who will need the skills first, before they can develop the interest. This does not mean that

the skills are taught in the isolated fashion, because certainly they need more than just a set of skills.

A teacher who genuinely loves to read herself is going to make children love to read. If the teacher is the type of person who says she would like to read, but just doesn't have time, there is little likelihood that she is going to make a child love to read. The average adult is spending over 20 hours a week watching television. Teachers groups are doing the same thing. Many of these are the very people who, before the time of television, said that they did not have time to read. It is a well known fact that we all find time to do those things we want to do and the things we like to do. Of course, television is a very important thing and there should be no pretense on the part of the teacher or the parent that reading is going to take the place of television. Reading is something over and above television and should add to the child's enjoyment of life.

Developing interest in reading should not begin in the classroom; it should begin in the home. If a child comes from a background where there is very little interest in reading and there are no books available in the home, there can be little expectation of his entering school with a desire to read and an enthusiasm for reading.

In developing an interest in reading, such things as the cover of the book and the illustrations in the book are important. Children should not be blamed for rejecting old worn-out books in the library that look as though they might be 500 years old and have been mistreated all the time. They want a book that looks new and fresh. In the Reading Center this frequently happens with the readers that they are coming out with

new covers. They are exactly the same as the old readers except for the cover, but the children will pick up the old book and say that they have read it. Then they will pick up one with the new cover and say that they haven't read this one. It is exactly the same book. But the child is trying to say that the appearance of this book appeals to his aesthetic sense, which increases his desire to read the book.

The highest level of interest which the child can express is when he can enjoy both the process and the result of reading. Of course, the child cannot be expected to say, "I certainly did enjoy the process of reading;" but he can be expected to say that he just enjoyed reading in addition to the story itself. This does not come in the first grade or the second grade or even the third grade. It is impossible to say where it comes, but it is certainly somewhere beyond the primary grades. In many cases it may not come until adulthood and, unfortunately, for many it never comes at all.

It is at this point that teachers of reading need to work a little harder, and put a little more of themselves into their teaching. Teachers need to let their children know how they love to read. The love for books is an infectious sort of thing. Children catch it, they don't learn it. It is something like a disease, except that it is a good disease. The teacher's enthusiasm, her interest, her desire to read, all indicate how much she loves to read. If the teacher does not like to read, then she is going to have a very difficult time getting anyone else to love reading. What argument would a teacher have? She can hardly say to the child, "You do it, but I don't like to." The child may listen to such reasoning, but it would have little

affect on him. Children are quite good at listening but they learn better those things which they "catch" from the teacher.

Absence Of A Felt Need For Reading

In order for a child to learn how to read well, he must have some inward reason that is so strong that he feels that he *has* to read. In working with junior high school students who are poor readers, it is customary at the Reading Center in Chattanooga to use the Tennessee Drivers Manual as the text. It is not necessary to say to a boy who is getting ready to take a very hard drivers examination why he is studying this particular book. He knows why and the need for reading is right there before him. It is less important to develop readiness for this particular lesson because this student is already in a position to know why he is studying this particular thing. The junior high school student's plea is "Teach me how to read the Drivers Manual just as fast as you can. I am 14 years old and I want to take that drivers test at 15 and I don't know how to read it." When you have such a definite need for reading, there is little difficulty in teaching the child how to read.

All this sounds as though people are not reading anymore. The fact that 70 million comic books are published each month clearly refutes this. Even though this is not the type of reading material which is most desirable, it nevertheless indicates that the public is reading something. Also, in drug stores and grocery stores throughout the country there are stacks of good books in paper bindings. The covers may be of a sensational nature, but many of the books are actually good literature. This very availability of materials is an important

factor to be considered in developing the need for reading.

Presentation of many of the wonderful books in the field of children's literature will help to develop this need in younger children. Dr. Seuss's latest book, *THE CAT IN THE HAT*, (Random House) which is written at low second grade level and contains only 223 different words is an excellent example of the type of material which is now available. The quality of children's literature has never been better. Frequent use and easy acquisition of the many wonderful books for children are a responsibility of both the school and the home.

Lack of Readiness

When a child is ready to learn to read, this is the time to teach him (if he is of school age). Some children are ready to read at the age of six, while others are not ready to read until they sometimes are even in the fifth or sixth grade.

A little boy asked one time, "Ain't you never going to learn me to read?" What must have happened to this child was that he was late in getting ready to read. When he finally did get ready, the teacher wasn't ready to teach him. In a classroom of 35 children, it is a problem for a fifth grade teacher who is very busy with 34 other children who are reading at fifth grade level. Even though the child was now ready to learn and tried to let the teacher know he was ready, her problem was that she was faced with a crowded classroom with children reading at all levels. And this little boy was asking her to teach him first grade skills which she perhaps did not know how to teach. In such a case it is necessary to turn for outside help. In answer to the child's question, "Ain't

you never going to learn me to read?", he must have assumed that our answer was, "I reckon we ain't".

Lack of Experiences

Another reason why some children have trouble in reading well is that they lack the background of experiences which are necessary for effective learning of initial skills involved in reading. When a child comes into the first grade all he has to draw upon are his experiences. Some of these children have had very limited experiences. They have been overly protected at home and have had few experiences in the outside world. They are suddenly plunged into what must be a terrifying experience and they are supposed to immediately adjust to the learning situation. Some of them are unable to do it. Some of them learn in spite of us, but some of them do not learn even in spite of us. The children come to school with a different type of experience, and all they have to draw on is what has happened to them in the six years before they came to school. The teacher must recognize that these experiences are different and she will have to approach the readiness for reading in many different ways.

The child who said in answer to a test question that she would go to the drug store for bread did not receive credit for the item. The fact that in her neighborhood they did buy bread at the drug store did not help her make a higher score. She was not wrong, the test was wrong. Her experience was just different from that of the person who was supposed to help her. Any attempt to make every child fit a particular pattern of experiences is doomed to failure.

Physical Problems.

There has been much discussion of

the physical problems which cause children to have difficulty in learning to read well. Such factors as poor vision and poor hearing must never be minimized. Anything affecting the general health of the child is of the utmost importance. The number of children seen in reading clinics throughout the country who are having trouble in reading because of physical handicaps is appalling. In most of these cases, the reading problem could have been avoided had the physical problem been taken care of before the child was placed in a formal reading situation. But these factors have been discussed at great length, so merely a mention of them here will have to be sufficient at this time. Another physical factor, which has not been discussed as much will be the main point of this section.

When asked what he liked best about school, a young child who was having reading difficulties said that he liked writing. When asked if there was anything about school that he did not like, he replied, "sittin." This very honest answer is one which is undoubtedly the unexpressed reason of most children for not liking school. For the first six years of their lives, children do very little sitting. Then suddenly, due to some artificial scale which we have set up, they are expected to sit quietly for five or six hours. This expecting young children to suddenly change from hyperactive little extroverts, into calm, quiet little introverts creates many serious physical problems. Because we expect this change is the reason that some children do not learn. It is not true with just first graders but is also true with some twelfth graders. Just sitting gets to be a pretty big problem for some children.

The child who has never had any

restraint placed upon him is in a particularly bad situation. The first six years of his life he does everything he wants and never sits still. Then suddenly we are to assume that something happens to the child. Perhaps it is some little thing in his brain which makes it possible for him to sit six hours and listen. He cannot do it. It is like the child who said that he was never going back to school for he couldn't write and he couldn't read and the teacher wouldn't let him talk. That pretty well took care of everything.

Summary and Conclusions.

More than ever before, both parents and teachers must join together in preventing reading problems. The types of things which are causing reading problems today are not the same things which caused reading problems twenty-five years ago. Most of the causes of

reading problems can be avoided, but they can be avoided only if there is constant cooperation between the home and the school. Both interest in reading and a need for reading must be developed before the child enters school. A very excellent book, *Growing Into Reading*, by Marion Monroe (Scotts-Foresman) should be of great help in aiding parents in developing both this interest and need.

Entering the child in school before he is ready, whether due to underage or lack of mental maturity, may have bad results. These should be considered along with his background of experiences and his ability to adapt himself to the requirements of a group situation. Working together, teachers and parents can avoid reading problems. The old adage about the value of prevention is more true in the learning to read process than perhaps in any other situation.

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What Next *in the* Teaching of Reading

By E. W. DOLCH
University of Illinois

WHAT IS AHEAD in the "teaching of Reading?" We would all like to know, so as to shape our thinking and practice in the right direction. What direction will the road ahead take? Lacking any special power of prophecy, we can still make a surmise by seeing what direction the road has followed in the past and what the present indications are. Then from the past direction and present trend, we can, as it were, project the curve or path into the future.

The past direction of reading emphasis has been admirably charted by Dr. Nila Smith in her well-known book, "American Reading Instruction." According to her summary, the past emphases may be given as (1) Religious, (2) Nationalistic-Moralistic, (3) Pestalozzian principles, (4) Culture, (5) Utilitarian asset, (6) "Broadened Objectives." This last emphasis is said to have grown out of the "objectives of the Twenty Fourth Yearbook." Dr. Smith considered this sixth emphasis of "Broadened Objectives" to be the current one at the time her book was written (copyrighted 1934). She then looks to the future (that is, the future for 1934) in a chapter headed "In Prospect." This chapter speaks of a "new movement" of "educators" and says they are primarily concerned with "general child development." At the end of this same chapter she says "the

reading activities described in this chapter are representative of the type of instruction which is directed largely by children's needs and activities." Might we then say that Dr. Smith's book would describe our present-day emphasis as (7) Child Development.

Perhaps the present emphasis in the teaching of reading can then be well described as the "Child Development Emphasis." Editors of present series of readers take care to adapt the books of each year to the problems of the children for that year. Six-year olds read about six-year olds and the typical problems of six-year olds. Twelve-year olds do the same for twelve-year olds, and so on. The reading of each year deals with the problems of each year. Some call these problems "developmental tasks." Others call them "maturity learnings." The idea seems to be that the children of each age need to know all about the typical children of that age and the world as seen by the children of that age. Supplementary books and audio-visual material are similarly "adapted to the age of the child." It is as if our ideal were to make each child a "normal child for his age."

Doubts about this whole process beset some persons. They say that the "normal child for his age" is a myth. They see no such "normal child." They see all children as different, different because of sex, because of heredity, be-

cause of homes, because of economic and social setting, because of locality, and so on. These people contend that each teacher must know her part of the country, her neighborhood, her children, and their parents. Knowing these things about each particular child, she will do her best to develop each one toward the best of which he is capable. To her, this reading material devoted to the "typical child of his age" is sometimes a help and sometimes a hindrance. At least, it is to her not the perfect material for her purpose.

Whether we approve of it entirely or not, we are still apparently in the period of "child development material." That is clearly the present emphasis. But according to all the past experience of the schools, this is not the permanent emphasis. There will sometimes come a change. What will that change be? Do we see any signs of its coming?

Here we must admit that many changes are advocated. Some of these are pleas to go back to some former interest. We are urged to put more emphasis on moral issues. We are urged to go back to literature. Change in reading as in all things may be irregular and may shift from one direction to another; but it does not go back. We do need to conserve the old. But with all our conserving, the emphasis will be upon something new. This new trend will come out of the old. What new trend seems to be appearing now?

What about science? Science is surely going ahead by leaps and bounds, and reading material is showing this emphasis. Books for children deal with science, even going as far as space ships and the like. But we need to remind ourselves that essentially the advancements of science are far beyond the understanding of children. So with all

our modern emphasis on science, the reading material for children cannot go far in that direction.

Instead it seems that in the midst of the present emphasis on child development, parents, teachers, educators and book makers are inquiring, "What is the goal of this greater knowledge of children?" What is the purpose of this better development of children?" The answer seems to be that we must *know* children and we must *develop* children so that, ultimately, we may guide each one toward his own best happiness in living. If the child does not attain happiness, what has he attained anyway?

This condition of happiness that each child is to reach is usually called "Mental health." If each child is to attain it, what is it that he is to attain? Briefly, he must reach five goals. *First*, he must have physical health. It is very hard to be mentally healthy and happy unless one is full of health and vigor. *Second*, he must have mental occupation. He must have wide interests so that he is really concerned with all people and with all his environment. Mental occupation is an essential for mental health and happiness. *Third*, he must have friendship. Group adjustment and friendship is of the utmost importance for happiness, as we learn more and more. *Fourth*, we must take pride in real accomplishment. Everyone lives on self-respect and proper pride. Every child must attain to this. *Fifth*, he must enjoy helping others. Only helping others gives the ultimate happiness, as all who have tried to help others have found out.

This is a very brief sketch of mental health. The subject is discussed in many books that are coming from the presses. They seem to make it clear that mental health in school and out is the greatest

present emphasis in education. Juvenile delinquency has drawn our attention to it in a negative way, but it is well known that such delinquency can only be combatted by positive, not negative measures.

Perhaps, therefore, we shall find an eighth period of reading emphasis known as "Mental Health." What does this imply for reading? First, of course, it shifts the emphasis from the reading of books to the life of the school room and neighborhood. Books become not an end in themselves but a means to an end. There is at present an idea called "bibliotherapy," which means that reading can change and improve mental states or attitudes. There are lists of books which are to be read to change attitudes towards other races and classes, to change feelings about one's own family or friends, to correct self-pity and other wrong attitudes, and so on. We have always known that reading could change people. We are now deliberately setting out to choose books which change people who need to be changed.

If we have a Mental Health emphasis, some material in basic readers needs to be changed because it may not have the best mental health result. But most of all, supplementary reading becomes of first importance. In some places, "independent reading" is the main thing, and the basic reader might even be called supplementary to independent reading. If the child's own reading becomes the main thing, then the teacher becomes the reading advisor. She needs to know

the child and the book in order to get the "right book for the right child." We find at once that the teacher begins to have the functions of both librarian and counsellor rolled into one.

How fast is the new emphasis coming? For many schools, it is already here. Many teachers have "felt it in their bones" that this is what the reading program needed, and they have gone ahead and acted accordingly. The publishers have been working on this emphasis for some time, asking themselves not only "Will the children like the stories?" but "What will the stories do to children?" Advisors in all positions, teachers, librarians, counsellors and principals have been asking themselves, "Just what kind of reading does this particular child need?" In fact, for many persons, this emphasis on Mental Health is well advanced.

For others, of course, things do not move so fast. Some still feel that any child's salvation is in "doing what he is told." Some still cling to former emphases, such as "moral character," "love of literature," and others which, though still of basic value, do not hit the center of a child's living and motivation. It has been said that to affect a child you have to "hit where he lives." This has always been true. And reading matter must "hit where he lives" to be vital to anyone. And we do want reading to be vital, and not just a "side activity" for each child. That is the basic reason for feeling that "Mental Health" will dominate the reading program for some time to come.

Some Psychological Aspects of Teaching Reading*

By MARVIN D. GLOCK
Cornell University

HOW DO YOU teach? Probably by telling, guiding, or encouraging pupils to imitate you! (1) There are some who would have you believe that any "telling" method of teaching is psychologically unsound. Yet we know that when a story is told to children they can become so interested that they will remember the most minute detail. Beware, if you change the color of the heroine's dress when you retell a particularly absorbing story to kindergartners or first graders! There are many things we have to tell children simply because it is the most efficient way to do it—"k" is silent in *know* because that's just the way it is . . . "ough" is pronounced "uff" in *rough* and "oh" in *dough*. Some children need to be told but once and they learn. Others with the same mental ability need to be told dozens of times before they learn. This concept revolves around the problem of motivation. It doesn't mean, however, that telling is always bad and that we should use another approach. Neither does it imply that telling produces no positive learning activity within the individual. It does emphasize that what we as teachers believe important may not seem of great consequence to the pupil; thus he will not be motivated to learn. Pupils learn best when they can see a reason for learning.

You Can Guide Pupils

In guidance we have another technique which gets results. When words fail us, we resort to pantomime, manual manipulation, or something that will help the learner to make the correct response. For example, in emphasizing meaning, teachers often have the children act out a word, a phrase, or a sentence. For the younger boys and girls a file of cards which request action such as *Run, Jump, Come to me*, etc., is useful. Past tense is difficult for some pupils. Having children show the difference between *jump* and *jumped*, *run* and *ran*, etc., is helpful in clarifying this concept. One fourth grade had a lot of fun acting out meanings of words with the same root—transport (verb and noun), transporting, and transportation. Homonyms dramatized for meaning help youngsters differentiate among these words which sound alike—pear (fruit), pare (peel), pair (two), etc. For older children the mood or feelings of characters in a story can be pantomimed. The different meanings that can be given to a word by voice inflection are best shown through saying the word in various examples. "*Oh*, I'm so happy. *Oh*, he couldn't come! *Oh*, why did you do it! *Oh*! I'm frightened," etc.

*From an address given by the author at the Second Annual Reading Conference at Cornell University in 1955.

Errors And Learning

Research also shows that guidance without permitting the learner to make errors and correct them is ineffective. Last summer I watched a parent attempt to teach his son to ride a bicycle. Learning was unsuccessful because the father would not let go of the seat. This parent should have protected his child from severe injury but at the same time forced him to exercise the techniques of balance. The boy could learn only by making an error and then correcting that error.

The pupil who mispronounces a word only to have his error corrected by the teacher will not learn word attack skills as efficiently as one who corrects his mistake through meaning gained from context and other cues. We hasten to add, however, that the child must not be left to flounder. Good guidance allows errors at a level at which the child can be successful in correcting his mistakes. We are not suggesting non-directed hit and miss procedures in teaching a child to read. We are saying that effective learning demands a situation in which the child makes mistakes so that through guidance he becomes an independent and mature reader. He builds strength through correcting his errors.

They Imitate To Learn

Children also learn by imitation. This is sometimes painfully obvious when we ask a pupil to teach a lesson to the class. Our own peculiarities seem to be reflected in all his actions and in much of what he says. Teachers, through their experiences, have discovered that children can be encouraged to learn by observing themselves and other pupils. You have asked boys and girls to watch your lips as you made

the consonant f—fox, fun, fur, family. You have encouraged them to note the shape of your mouth as you differentiated between such words as *house* and *horse*. One very successful way of teaching the difference between long and short vowel sounds is through imitation. Have the children watch closely as you “pronounce” long “a” and short “a” without uttering a sound.

We also can set an example for children by reading to them. If we read well we provide a model whom they can imitate. Good diction and expression are basic to understanding what is read. Many pupils comprehend poorly because they read words instead of ideas. I believe too that we often forget the potential of an enthusiastic teacher's attitude for stimulating boys and girls to enjoy reading. The teacher who is well-liked by her pupils and shows through her reading to children how much she enjoys it will transfer that spark to them.

You Can't Give Understanding

Being able to imitate doesn't necessarily mean that the child understands, however. Understanding cannot be given by the teacher or the text. It is developed by the learner out of his experiences. Telling, guiding, and imitating should result in involving the learner in these new ideas or skills. There must be proper connections between what he already knows, the way he has learned it, and the immediate learning task. The ultimate purpose of teaching reading in the content subjects is to make it possible for the pupil to learn new information and to stimulate his thinking.

Suppose, for example, we are teaching a unit on conservation and the topic of dust storms is introduced. We

can tell our pupils about the devastating effects of the soil being blown off the land, and about the farm families compelled to leave their homes. We can even suggest stories about the hardships imposed. However, the concepts of dust storms formed by the children in a lush, green New York town will be most inadequate compared to those formed by the Nebraska youngsters whom I taught back in the 1930's. They breathed the dust, studied in school rooms where the lights had to be kept burning all day during a dust storm, observed their parents scooping dust out of their homes, and saw it drifted along the fence rows like snow. It was easy to help these boys and girls gain an appreciation of conservation problems. To help most children develop the attitudes and understandings of this particular problem of conservation, however, would require considerable ingenuity. If we can't give them the concrete experiences—living in a real honest-to-goodness dust storm—then we can use pictures, movies, field trips, and blowing dust in our own back yards. Too often, reading results in a mere calling of words. I have discovered children who were surprised when they found that reading could be an enjoyable experience as the "inert" words before them unfolded into an exciting tale.

What Has He Learned?

If the pupil does not read with understanding the result may be some pretty funny boners. One boy had interpreted his text as stating that "The French Revolution wrote insulting letters to the American Revolution." The text read, "The French Revolution corresponded in a rough way to the American Revolution." (2) Learning doesn't

occur by filling a lot of little buckets in the cranium. A pupil may be able to regurgitate what we or the text say letter perfect, but he may not understand what we are attempting to teach him.

A first grade teacher was trying to develop her youngsters' abilities to differentiate among those words which rhymed and those which did not. She dutifully followed the suggestions in her teacher's manual. "Jane played in the rain. What word rhymes with *Jane*? Jane has a candy cane. What word rhymes with *Jane*?" Jane saw the train, what word rhymes with *Jane*?" One little girl went home that evening all excited about this activity. She asked her parents to give her the word *Jane* so she could tell them the words that rhymed with it. Without a pause, she responded with *rain*, *cane*, and *train*. Then her mother asked her if she could think of any more words that rhymed with *Jane*. "Oh, no," she said, "That's all there are!" The mother pursued the question, asking if *lane* rhymed with *Jane*. But the child persisted, "Of course not, there are only three words that rhyme with *Jane*—*rain*, *cane*, and *train*." The teacher had organized a learning experience for her children. Learning had occurred. However, for at least one child, learning was just an association between one word and three others. She had not developed the concept of rhyming. Learning is of little value if the learner can not apply his knowledge.

Will Learning Transfer?

You know from experience that even though your children complete exercises to develop the sound of the initial consonant *f* the skill is not always applied in their reading. The children may seem to do it very well, saying fun,

fin, etc. But when they meet a new word in a story beginning with *f*, they may fumble around and not use any phonetics or they may give *f* the sound of another letter. In structural analysis, you point out the two words in *snowball* and *mailman*. When the pupils see the word *snowman* in their reading, you have no assurance that they will be able to identify it. You may have taught the meanings of certain roots—*aud-*, *audit-*, from *audire*, *auditus*, meaning to hear. It doesn't necessarily follow that pupils will use this information in attacking the new word *audiometer* in their science assignment. Perhaps you have worked with students on finding main ideas in paragraphs. You have also had numerous exercises on summarizing. You find, however, that in studying their history assignment your pupils have failed to grasp the main ideas. They have latched on to a number of unessential details. The skill of finding main ideas hasn't transferred from the practice exercises to the history lesson. If skills that we help children to develop are to be useful, these skills must be transferred to the numerous reading tasks with which the pupil is confronted. We must follow through and teach for transfer. Our basic reading series provide for this. The pupil gets practice applying skills in reading that are developed by the teacher and the workbook. However, these materials are not foolproof, and the effective teacher is always alert to bridge this gap; to help the pupil see the utility of these skills and to guide him into using them when he finishes the class and workbook exercises. To follow the teacher's manual and children's workbooks blindly and without appreciating the objectives of the suggestions and exercises leaves much to be desired. For example, there

are workbook exercises on using initial consonant sounds to recognize new words that may be answered without actually applying the newly learned skill. The pupil outguesses the author. Unless the teacher can understand the mental processes required in using the skill and can determine whether the exercise demands these processes of the student, there is no desirable practice. True evaluation of learning a skill is determined from the student's response in reading a book or an article. Does he apply what he has learned?

How To Help

The content teacher could best spend more time on assignments, showing the pupils how to apply skimming, rapid reading, and critical reading. New words can be discussed. Pupils can be helped to see how roots, affixes, and content are used to ascertain meanings. One teacher has a class discussion on many of the assignments. She asks the group a number of questions. What is our purpose? What do we need to find out? How should we read the assigned chapter? Let's read the paragraph on page 292. What is the main idea? Mary? Do you agree with her Tom? Why not? Bill do you agree with either Tom or Mary? etc. This kind of approach is needed if we are to promote the use of the skills that we teach.

Summary

We teach by telling, guiding, or encouraging pupils to imitate us. If telling is to result in effective learning, pupils must see a reason for what we say. Good guidance enables the learner to make errors and correct them with his own skills. Imitation doesn't insure understanding. Neither does it provide for an application of skills. It is important that

what a pupil learns is understood by applying it to many and varied activities and that he is given practice in ties.

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Reading Maketh

A Full Child, Too!

By LUCY NULTON
*P. K. Yonge Laboratory School
College of Education
University of Florida*

A MERRY little laugh twinkled across the room spontaneously.

Near the piano three boys sang songs from a book, motioning with their hands as the melody moved up and down. From one corner came a gay giggle now and then which disturbed no one, but aroused enough curiosity in one child for him to tip-toe over and peek into the book inspiring the giggles.

Another child, in concentrated unawareness of things around him read deeply into a development of the concept of relative sizes,³ checking illustrations, pausing now and then to mutter to himself or to verify a new idea with the teacher.

It was reading time and this was the atmosphere which prevailed. Every child was reading, too. Some with more gusto than others, we must admit. But not every child was reading in the same book! Nor were ten "bluebirds" reading in an interesting, attractive, difficult book, all at the same line on the same page, while at the front of the room ten "redbirds" were plodding stodgily through dull "easy books" and fifteen other children at their tables were dully drawing lines under words in work-books.

No! This was a different kind of reading with different purposes. More-

over, the purposes were growing within the innerself of each child, where true purposes always grow.

What are some of the purposes involved and developing as individuals or small groups of two or three make their own selections and pursue their own personal reading paths? The same purposes which move adults to read and use books.

Watch children when they have a chance at this kind of reading. First they browse and explore to see what is available. Who of us does not browse when he first encounters a whole new library or a new book store? There are purposes and values in such browsing, of course. We find old friends in familiar or new dress. We find relatives of the familiar and dear. We discover a loved author has written a new book we have never met. We find books about subjects we have never before thought of. We find books on subjects we had previously thought too difficult and with these new books the whole difficult matter opens up and we find we can begin to read and understand. We find new types of literature, fresh illustrators, fun, adventure, sorrow and danger vicariously met and personally surmounted. Oh, let us all browse to the discovery of new worlds and let us tirelessly allow children to browse, too, for this explora-

tion of the world of books is one of reading's finest values and deepest purposes.

Some have passed through periods of browsing and move now with more direct purpose toward specific ends. Let us watch them, too.

Clustered in one corner is a little group of children trying out reading puzzles involving identification of books, characters, and authors. They quiz one another relentlessly and gleefully, extending, each, his own world and his own skill.

Hovering over the pet cage, books in hand and vocabularies growing, are three children attempting to identify the turtle they found in the woods yesterday. *Plastron*, *carapace*, *reptile*, these new words and concepts take the place of "See Jack run." "See mother. See daddy," as even these small ones use reference books to gain the satisfactions of scientific identification and further knowledge.

Two children at the cooking table are reading directions for apple sauce and planning what they will need for its achievement. They have to add, also, and re-read directions, for reading difficulties multiply in proportion to the size of the quantity needed. Finally, they must write and re-read plans, quantities, and directions. Cook-book reading is not simple, but it tastes so good!

At the other end of the room a group of children is also reading directions; this group for the construction of something at the work bench. Laborious reading it is, involving measuring and computing. How does the teacher know whether they can read? The test of the reading lies in the applesauce and the finished construction. These are their purposes for reading.

There is a child who, all alone, "like

stout Cortez" has discovered geography and "stares at the Pacific." Clutching *This Is The Word*² under his arm, he turns the globe, reads, looks, meditates and finally takes the globe in his arms while chubby forefinger traces areas in relation to his reading.

Several children are planning a dramatization of a new-found book.

Others are sampling magazines or are lost in the delights of the good, old fairy and folk tales which are their inheritance as human beings.

Immature and hesitant Julia is delighting herself with a picture ABC book, calling names and pointing out to herself items in the illustrations. Presently she reaches the section where names become whole descriptive phrases. This slows her down some, but she continues with plodding satisfactions, and many trips for teacher's help, until she almost finishes the book. When she tires and lays it down, she looks up to find a happy teacher congratulating her on her accomplishment. Tomorrow there will be more. Now Julia finds an illustrated Mother Goose and saturates herself with color and details of the pictures. This is reading, too.

At one point the teacher calls three children together near the blackboard. For a few minutes they work earnestly on discrimination of small, difficult words so much alike. Then each goes back to his own personal reading reinforced with new methods of attack and stronger self-assurance. Teacher turns to help another child, to make a suggestion, to take up her own reading. (For teacher is a reader, too!)

During the entire time there are children using dictionaries; some for the fun of browsing through words, some to gain meanings or verify concepts they have found in a particular book.

Some children do this entirely independently. Others ask another child to help or take the dictionary and the book to the teacher to check for certainty.

In the coatroom several children are reading, planning, re-reading, in preparation for the dramatization of a much-loved old story.

Less harmonious is the group arguing in the library nook. The stack of books on the table before them testifies to the heated discussion, for some of the books do not agree! Argument becomes fiery. Readers become more and more disappointed. "One of these books cannot be true!" explodes a child violently. "And I thought everything books say is true!" comes another disillusioned wail. Here is one of the scholar's first and most vital learnings. One cannot believe all one finds in print. One must learn to evaluate and discriminate even in choices of books, friends, and sustenance.

Books are also sources for settling arguments when rightly used. One child shows a group of four others where he found his reasons and another adds further facts from a source he has found. Then they proceed with their investigation for which books were consulted. Arguments and proofs wear well and develop strengths when books are used thus.

Some children read entirely alone, finding sufficient company for the moment in book friends, far away places or in therapeutic identification with characters also beset by problems, troubled with fears, or rising with stamina and courage to heroism. Through such identification one may grow in stature to face and then surmount one's own limitations realistically.

Back and forth, to and fro, sings the little yellow rocker rhythmically as Fran

chants poetry from the anthology she loves. She rocks alone in the sunshine, but over in the doll corner clusters a group reading poems aloud to one another, sometimes solo, sometimes antiphonally. Every child, from babyhood and Mother Goose, given half a chance, recognizes that poetry is born to be read aloud!

Here, then, are the purposes with which they read—these children—to laugh, to sing, to prove and seek, to travel, find, explore and flee, to gain realism and courage, to feed on drama, to value, and to stand confounded at the wonders of a printed page—a large mirror of a wondrous world. And over it all an aura of avidity which never envelopes even the best "reading lesson" that is teacher-manual-planned, teacher-selected, and adult-conducted.

Then to come together for a sparkling, joyous, sharing of what we have found in this exploration of books!¹ To tell, recount, describe, question, argue, dramatize, chant, and sing together as a group because we have found these things in books and books are fun! To share and discuss books is fun!

What are the values of this way of reading for children? Let us set them down in a methodical, duly considered one, two, three.

1. Reading becomes spontaneous, appealing, the very opposite of drudgery (even when one has to dig-in hard to mine the treasure).

2. Reading is done with purpose—not teacher's purpose, either, or anxious-parent purpose.

3. Children learn techniques at the time and the point where those particular techniques are needed. They are applied next time they are met. Each child gets each technique in his own person-

ally appointed way and makes his own applications.

An ounce of this kind of personal teaching carries more weight than a hundred pounds of group instruction on page ten of the required text. It makes more impression. It lasts longer. Associations are clearer. There are fewer occasions of monotonous repetition.

4. Children learn to use many kinds of books: story books, poetry, song books, worship, dictionaries, encyclopedias, science, geography, riddles, recipes, directions, "puzzles and quizzes" (to quote one creative reader), joke books, ABC's and Mother Goose, folk tales and realism. And withal, that music, fairyland and poetry which ignites the spirit of creation in mankind.

5. Readers learn to give accounts, in many forms, of what they read. Be the form applesauce, argument, dry-cell experiment, drama, conversation or a new poem, it shows he can read!

6. Readers learn to make applications of what they have read—sometimes outwardly and scientifically, sometimes inwardly.

7. Books come to have for many children of this troublous era a therapeutic value, helping them to understand their problems and their fears. They help the upset person understand emotional upsets. They help the one with big problems recognize that he is not alone—others have problems too.

8. This way of reading develops a spirit of helpfulness to one another in

attacking reading difficulties. The reading is the thing. On with the charge! I've met that one. We help each other!

9. It also develops independence of reading; independence in attacking difficulties without teacher first going over them and drilling on them *every* time; independence of choice and rejection; independence of evaluation.

10. Children learn to read to gain other techniques: to measure and compute, to cook, to build, to sew, to photograph, to sing, and so—onward!

11. Children come to enjoy and value books, the sharing of books, and group pleasure in reading experiences.

12. Each child is allowed and encouraged to read (without dissimulation) on his own level of reading ability. He progresses, without fear of comparisons or labels, to his own best reading ability, with emphasis upon *reading* and the inherent values of reading.

13. Children gain an awareness that some books are inaccurate, some more authentic than others, some not to be trusted. They learn how to discriminate.

14. Children learn that "some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested." Some, they gulp!

Yes, "reading maketh a full man!" It maketh a full child, too, when he is allowed to choose his own books, read for his own purposes, chew and digest to his own growth. Herein lie some of the values of this way of teaching the child to read.

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Reading Tips *for* Beginning Teachers

By RALPH C. STAIGER and MARY BAIRD
Mississippi Southern College

EACH YEAR A group of inexperienced teachers enters the teaching profession. Some are newly graduated college men and women; others are mature women who have raised families and now are doing their part to relieve a teacher shortage; there is a sprinkling of retired service men who want to teach. But no matter what the background of beginning teachers, they usually have qualms about facing a classroom full of youngsters for the first time.

It is to the prospective and beginning teacher that these suggestions are made. Although the tips are primarily concerned with reading instruction they must of necessity touch upon other influences which are general in nature, but which affect reading. Children do not learn to read in a vacuum. All the other activities and influences in a classroom can affect the success of your reading program. Judge for yourself how these tips can help you become a successful teacher.

Make Friends. Perhaps it is unnecessary to remind a teacher that personal relationships with pupils can color their learning to read. Many a retarded reader has been helped to overcome his difficulty because his teacher, a reading clinician, or a tutor took an interest in him and gave him confidence. Learning to read is an individual matter for every child. If the learning atmosphere is a friendly, stimulating one, reading

skills will more likely be absorbed. Occasionally a teacher lavishes false attention and praise on a child. Children see through this false attention quickly. It is usually a good idea to underplay the friendliness and make it genuine instead of broadcasting affection to the winds and have none of it land on fertile ground.

Make friends with parents, too, if you want to be a successful teacher. In your pupils you have excellent public relations agents. Use them. Parents are usually much interested in what their children are learning. When you have an opportunity to praise a child for a job well done, a note home will pay big dividends.

Take a positive attitude with parents instead of a negative one, and watch your parent-teacher relationships become useful and solid. Don't be two-faced with parents. They will see through your false praise, too. It will take them somewhat longer than their children to uncover your hypocrisies, but they will find you out eventually.

Open criticism by parents can do considerable damage in destroying a child's faith in your work. Avoid it by giving each child a taste of success from the first day, and showing him by your actions that you are proud of his accomplishments.

Enjoy Yourself. Pity the person who hates children, but is teaching school. And pity the children in his class. Your

day will go quickly, and you will be happier, if you relax and enjoy your work.

Most children enjoy learning. If they sense that you, too, are enjoying the story at hand, and enjoy leading them to full understandings they will continue their happy attitudes toward learning. Pleasure and enthusiasm are contagious.

Expect Variations. Your class will contain children of many sizes and descriptions. Although they will usually have about the same chronological age, your pupils will have varying abilities and interests. Don't expect that all will profit from reading instruction at the same reader level. And don't attempt the impossible—teaching them so that they will all be reading at the same level. Research studies show that when a class has had good teaching, the pupils will vary even more at the end of the year than they varied at the beginning. Good teaching makes the good readers better, and helps the poor readers become good. Good teaching does not "bring everyone up to grade level."

Find out as soon as you can about the variations in reading ability in your class, so that you can adjust your instruction early. And try not to make permanent decisions about a child's abilities. Changes will occur during the year—spurts of growth in reading that will give you big thrills, for you will know that you are doing a good job.

Know Where You Are Going. How you fit into the total picture of your school's reading program is something you ought to find out early. Discuss the overall program with your principal or supervisor, and plan your work so that you will not be a square cog in the machinery. The amount of guidance you will get varies in different school sys-

tems. Usually an understanding of the details of a program can be had from the local course of study and/or your teacher's manual. It will be worth your while to study these early so that you will know what the jobs ahead will be.

Organize and Plan. Once you have an overview of the program, time spent in planning, getting materials ready, reading the coming story, and otherwise establishing readiness in yourself for teaching the lesson will be time well spent. Time spent in the afternoon, or before the children arrive in the morning in getting ready will pay off in peace of mind.

Every once in a while, it will be useful to take stock of how you are doing your job. Try to be objective about yourself and your youngsters, decide what changes you must make to better meet their needs and yours.

Planning ahead does not necessarily mean planning every detail: It should mean instead making your job easier because you know where you are going and how you expect to get there. Don't overorganize to the point that when unanticipated events take place you will be left with only a blank expression on your face. Children's ideas are many and varied; they will often be ahead of you.

Use Your Manual. The teacher's manual which accompanies your reader is designed to lighten your load, help you plan your work, and make useful suggestions. If you do not have a manual available, ask your principal or supervisor for a manual. If none is in the building, write—preferably on school stationery—to the publisher. He is interested in your using the readers in the most efficient way, and will usually provide a manual at little or no cost. It is wise to mention that you are using

his readers in your classroom in your letter.

For a beginning teacher, there is no better friend than a manual. You will probably find, after a while, that you will want to vary from the suggestions somewhat. Since the authors of the series could not possibly anticipate every situation you will find yourself in, variations are usually a good idea. In fact, be alert for the manuals of other publishers for ideas. Remember, though, that the activities suggested in a manual are usually too much for any one lesson. You will soon see that only those parts of the manual which are useful to your pupils should be followed. Use your manual for help in preparing a lesson, teaching it, grouping your children, testing supplementary reading and individual help.

Balance Skills. In deciding what you should choose from the manual, try always to keep the needs of the pupils in mind. Don't go overboard on one type of word-recognition exercise to the exclusion of other skills. If your pupils have had a great deal of practice with one type of exercise in previous classes, and you are satisfied that no more learning or useful over-learning is taking place, omit that exercise.

Reading is not the only avenue of learning, and teachers must use many approaches to help children understand concepts of various kinds. Pictures, models, recordings, motion pictures, television, and other aids should be used whenever they do a better job than reading can do. Children should use their skills of observation and listening as well as reading skills for learning.

Keep Records. There is much value in keeping records of achievement in reading and in other areas. A daily notation of observations will be a big help

when report card time arrives. Standardized tests will help you judge the reliability of your observations. Sometimes a teacher is surprised to find that the pupil who has been uncommunicative and apparently dull is really absorbing more than anyone realized.

Samples of children's work should be kept, along with your observations and test scores. Parent conferences are usually more constructive and pleasant when evidence is at hand. Your opinion is worth far more when it is backed up with documents, and examples of work will help a parent understand what you are doing better than any verbal explanation.

As soon as possible, you should acquaint yourself with any previous records available. The school's permanent record card might contain valuable information for helping to understand a child. But make your own judgments. Your predecessor might not have been as objective as you are, and might have passed a one-sided picture on to you.

Foster Outside Reading. The reading done in school is designed ultimately for the purpose of having the pupils read well in their daily activities. A reading program based on basal readers alone is anaemic, for readers should be stepping-stones to many varied reading activities. Encourage, by many means, your children to read books and magazines in which they have an interest, and which they can read. Brightly colored book jackets are like magnets which draw young children to the library table. Book clubs, book programs, book games, book exhibits, talks about books, and book-exchanges among pupils will encourage an interest in reading outside of school.

A Final Word. Part of your pay as a teacher will be in the achievements of

your pupils. While this will not buy groceries, it is certainly worth considering. Unfortunately, there will be days when you will have to look carefully to find evidence of achievement. Everything you have planned falls through, your pupils seem to miss the point, and you feel that all your work is for nothing. It is perfectly normal for this

to happen occasionally—"The best laid plans of mice and men gang aft agley." Don't feel too let down if this happens once in a while. If it becomes a regular occurrence, and your days never seem to go right, it is time to take stock of yourself, your students, your plans, and your work. Try not to let yourself get in this position. The chances are you won't.

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Foundation *for* Dictionary Appreciation

By RICHARD BRADDOCK

State University of Iowa

A GLOW EFFUSES from the dictionary for most of us teachers of our language. Our dictionary presents the words with which we symbolize our joys and sorrows, our triumphs and failures; it is truly a presentation of our lives. A sense of this glow is communicated very well by such articles as Calvin T. Ryan's "When the Dictionary Comes Alive"¹ and Mitford M. Mathews' "The Freshman and His Dictionary."²

Unfortunately, most of our students come to us without a sense of the life within the covers of the dictionary. It is not an active dislike which they feel. They have no feelings toward the dictionary, for they know little of it. And they cannot begin to share the feelings of a Calvin Ryan or Mitford Mathews until they know how to use it. The purpose of this article is to suggest some of the difficulties which the novice has with his dictionary and some of the procedures with which we can teach him how to use it well.

Locating Entries

Amazing though it seems, many students do not realize that their dictionary is more than its main section, that it has a table of contents. Some do not know how easily they can discover the meaning of the I. H. S. they have often seen in church but never understood.

They have not had the satisfaction of looking up the meaning of their inamorata's given name or discovering under which sign of the zodiac they were born.

When they do turn to the main section for a word, some students have never thought of using the index tabs sensibly, of seeing how close they can come to the page the word is on by estimating its location between the tabs. Then when they do get close to the page, how disheartening it is to see their eyes searching up and down each column instead of using the guide words at the tops of the pages. And if the word they find happens to be merely a cross reference to the full entry under another spelling, how discouraged they must feel, thinking the cross reference word is all the dictionary has for them. They fail to see that "Syn. See remember" is not merely one synonym, but the door to a roomful of them, with the nuances of meaning sensitively clarified.

Reading Entries

Many students not only need information about finding the entry they want in the dictionary; they also need instruction in reading the entry when they find it. Just ask them to pronounce (tūn). Most, working from the usual spelling rather than the diacritical spelling, will give the pronunciation they are most familiar with—(tōon). The differences

1. *Word Study*, XXXI (December, 1955), 1-3.

2. *College Composition and Communication*, VI (December, 1955), 187-190.

among (ă), (â), (â), and (ä) have not struck them. They do not recognize their own ignorance enough to consult habitually the key to diacritical marks, if they know there is one. Yet we can quickly show them how, with little effort on their part once they have the hang of it, to produce the sounds which the dictionary records.

When they look for the meaning of the word, some students stop at the first definition, as if that were the best one. Perhaps they make a false analogy between the order of the definitions and the order of preference with which alternate spellings are listed. Whatever the reason, too many novices fail to scan the various definitions to select the one which fits the context in which they have met an unfamiliar word. They often neglect to utilize the usage labels, either as a means of selecting the meaning to fit the context or of determining the appropriateness of the word in the writing or speaking they are planning. Yet it takes us but a few minutes to show our students the significance of the usage labels and to direct them to the explanatory table of abbreviations.

If we are going to help our students learn how to use the dictionary, it is fundamental for us to insure that they all own good college level dictionaries and to demonstrate, in classroom reference to our own dictionary, that using the dictionary is a mark of discrimination, not of ignorance. But these fundamentals are not enough. At some time in their academic careers, students must learn the simple skills essential to competent use of the reference book which can serve them throughout their lives. And let us face it, if our students have not learned these skills in high school,

where they should, we must see that they learn them early in their freshman year at college.

Dictionary Guides

One way is to have the students study carefully the explanatory guide in the front part of the dictionary. Complete and succinct, the explanatory guides of the various college level dictionaries seem forbidding to many students because of these two qualities. Repeated reference, however, teaches the students the features of the main section of the dictionary and the mechanics of its use. Students also need some exercise material with which they can practice application of the instructions in the explanatory guides.

Another way to teach dictionary skills is to utilize the study guides which dictionary publishers distribute free to instructors for classroom use. These study guides have full explanations and many exercises for students to use.³ In using the guides, the instructor should be ready to help weaker students over parts that need fuller explanation and to develop more fully those dictionary skills which tend to be useful at the time but less emphasized at earlier levels of schooling.

An added stumbling block exists for the instructor in the college which accepts several college level dictionaries. With perhaps three different dictionaries being used in his class, he finds that instruction becomes disorderly. Repeating similar instructions with slight variations for each of the dictionaries, trying to hold in mind just what these variations are, checking answers for each of the three different sets of exercises—the resultant shambles can per-

3. In addition to the regular study guide, the dictionary publishers supply instructional material on such other matters as vocabulary building and etymologies.

haps discourage dictionary use more than promote it.⁴ But even the instructor who refuses to teach these fundamental dictionary skills usually knows that most of his freshmen need them.

Dictionary Tests

Another procedure which often has merit is to administer a test over the dictionary after the students have done instructive exercises. Not only can the test be a means of rewarding students who have done their work well and of discouraging the student tempted to copy another's exercises; it can also be used to identify those who need additional dictionary work. Or the test may be administered to college freshmen before instruction to determine which students have come to college with sufficient skill to be excused from basic instruction, perhaps to be given special assignments in reference books like the *Oxford English Dictionary*. A standardized test which has been on the market

for some years is the *Cooperative Dictionary Test*, published by the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey. Primarily aimed at junior and senior high schools, the test items are answered by consulting not an actual dictionary, but facsimile pages of the *Webster's Students Dictionary*, edited by G. & C. Merriam and published by the American Book Company.⁵

Whatever procedures are used to instruct students who need training in dictionary skills, it would be a pity if most students were left with the skills but no feeling for the dictionary. Once a student can find his way around in his dictionary and interpret intelligently the entry when he finds it, then he can make the most significant discovery of all: that his dictionary is a wonderland of etymologies, semantic overtones, spelling whimsies, and pronunciation variants which can delight as well as inform him throughout the span of his life.

4. Just published by Rinehart and Company, the writer's inexpensive *University Self-Teaching Dictionary Guide* attempts to solve these problems by offering instructions at once appropriate for the three major college level dictionaries. The exercises have the same correct answers, no matter which of the three dictionaries is used.

5. The test accompanying the *University Self-Teaching Dictionary Guide*, designed primarily for college freshmen and superior high school seniors, is used along with any of three college level dictionaries, the correct answers being the same no matter which of the three the student uses.

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Teachers Must Diagnose

BY WILLIAM D. SHELDON
Syracuse University

A SOUND PROGRAM of reading instruction can only be developed on the basis of an accurate knowledge of the reading status of our children. It is therefore necessary that each teacher of reading be prepared to administer a preliminary diagnosis of their children's reading and be able to present simple corrective measures which will eliminate many minor and some major problems.

Dolch (2), Betts (1), Durrell (3) and Sheldon (6) have presented teachers with procedures and in some cases materials by which they can analyze the reading of children.

Dolch describes the means by which teachers can assess the reading ability of children through books. In four steps, using the oral reading of new materials, Dolch shows the teacher how she can gain some knowledge of children's word recognition and analysis ability and their comprehension of the material read.

Betts, long an advocate of the informal reading inventory, has given teachers an excellent diagnostic approach to reading in his *Handbook on Corrective Reading*. This handbook accompanies a series of interesting books, graded from the second to the sixth grade. The material is particularly useful in diagnosing older children and assesses the instructional independent and frustration level of reading of each child tested.

The Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty is a rather simply devised instru-

ment. It presents several series of graded paragraphs by means of which teachers discover the reading level of their children. A vocabulary test gives teachers an understanding of the word recognition and analysis status of their children. Other parts of the Durrell Analysis include a test of listening comprehension and measures for determining the visual and auditory skills.

It is important to note at this point that informal inventories will give teachers a first picture of the status of children. In the case of children with major disabilities further evidence concerning causative factors and their treatment might be obtained from reading clinics, psychiatrists, psychometrists and others skilled in analysis. However, the first step, that of establishing the level on which a child can be taught, can be taught through the proper use of the procedures suggested by Dolch, Betts and Durrell.

A series of informal diagnostic reading tests has been incorporated in a series of recently published basal readers (6). These tests are designed for use by the teacher before children are taught reading on a certain level. For example before children use the 3-1 reader they are given tests which measure their oral and silent reading. These test materials are developed on the basis of concepts and vocabulary which the children should have mastered on the second grade level.

During oral reading the teacher notes errors of omission, substitution, phras-

ing, punctuation and repetition. The errors made are studied as a basis for understanding the nature of the child's difficulties.

Two aspects of reading comprehension are measured: that of answering questions based on the materials and the recall of the story read.

A combination of errors in word recognition and analysis and obvious difficulties in comprehension give teachers clues as to the level on which children are frustrated in reading and also on which level the child needs instruction. The independent level can also be ascertained and this knowledge will help guide teachers and librarians in the proper selection of leisure and study type reading materials.

It is important for teachers to possess an accurate record of the kinds of errors children have made so that corrective lessons can be taught during or in

addition to the regular reading lesson. There are excellent sources from which the teacher can obtain guidance in developing corrective teaching procedures. General and some specific help can be obtained from Betts (1), Gray (4), and Harris (5). Interesting lessons, related to the elimination of various types of errors can be found in the manuals and activity books accompanying some series of basal readers.

It has been said that one of the major contributing factors to poor reading has been unrealistic instruction based on an inaccurate assessment of the reading status of children. It is the responsibility then of every teacher of reading to become skilled in the accurate preliminary diagnosis of the reading status of her children. She must also be equipped to correct the reading disabilities of her children.

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The Development of Visual Perception in Children

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IT SOMETIMES causes surprise that, although even little children obviously enjoy looking at pictures, and seem to learn something from doing so, yet they may fail to notice things which are very clear to us. By the age of three or four, most children can name correctly familiar objects depicted in simple drawings, as is shown by their performance in the Terman-Merrill test of intelligence. But if they are shown pictures of scenes and human activities, they may not grasp what the people are doing. This was found out many years ago by Alfred Binet (2). Children may even overlook altogether the main actors, while commenting delightedly on the little dog in the corner, which has nothing to do with the action. Now this may be partly because they are more interested in things like the little dog, while they are relatively uninterested in what the people are doing. But also it has been found that children below the age of nine or ten are unable to understand what is happening; they cannot infer the course of the actions from the single static view presented in the picture. W. A. Miller (4) found that children of eight or nine years could describe correctly only about 20 per cent of the main items of a picture—those which gave the picture its real meaning—; and the pictures were taken from the books they were actually using in school.

Now this is clearly of some importance in teaching children to read, because commonly they are expected to be able to name both objects and actions shown in pictures, and hence to read the descriptive words attached to them. Thus one of the first things a teacher may have to do is to insure that the children can understand the pictures she shows them, and can give the names which belong to the people and activities in them, in order to match these with the printed words attached to the pictures.

If a little child does not always notice the salient features of a picture, still less does he perceive clearly the essential aspects of shapes which have no meaning like that of a picture. He may have some general impression of shape—whether a shape is rectangular, round or pointed—but he tends to see it as a whole rather than in detail. Thus L. W. Gellerman (3) found that children of two can discriminate between simple shapes such as a square, a circle and a triangle. But J. Piaget and B. Inhelder (7) showed that children could not copy such shapes correctly till they were four or five years old. And according to L. Wood and E. Shulman (8), these and slightly more complex shapes were not remembered correctly until nearly eight years of age.

If four-year-old children are shown more complicated shapes—outline

figures containing a good deal of interior detail—they will copy these very inaccurately, as P. A. Osterreith (6) showed. When a little older, they will either copy the main outline and leave out the details; or they may get several of the details correct but dot them about anyhow on the page without apparently perceiving how they are related together. This depends upon whether the outline or the details are clearer and more obvious. Quite a long period may elapse before children perceive the whole shape and its details correctly, and see how these fit together.

Now in printed words neither the total outline of the words nor the details of the letters are at all clear or obvious; they do not have any simple form which immediately impresses itself upon the child and can be easily remembered. To a little child, a word is just a jumble of lines with no sort of pattern or regularity about it. Thus in advocating the teaching of reading of whole words, it should be realized that the shapes of whole words are not at all easy for the child to perceive or discriminate, unless they have something rather striking about them, like double letters ('ee'), or a 'y' with its long tail. Many experimenters have shown how readily children confuse words of approximately the same length, unless they have some distinguishing mark of this kind.

Supposing the child is to be taught to analyse the words into their constituent letters or phonetic units; then other difficulties may appear. In the first place, to a child below a certain age, a word shape may not appear analysable; it is seen as a complete whole. However, if it is printed in big letters, not too near together, he may then see that there are several shapes in the word

whole. But the shapes are very much alike. There is nothing very striking about the appearance of any one of them, though he may notice that some stick up above the line, and others go down below it. Even these are similar to one another; it is difficult to see the difference and harder still to remember it.

And here we come to another great difficulty for the child: Shapes which are alike in form but face in different directions look just the same to him, when he is below a certain age. He may even confuse a shape which is right side up with the same shape upside down. The reason for this is not far to seek. While he is an infant, a child learns that an object remains the same whatever its position in space; a doll turned upside down is still the same doll. Naturally he thinks that a picture turned upside down is still the same picture; and so it is, although to us it looks quite different. Thus the child can recognize pictures and even read words when they are upside down. Again, L. Bender (1) showed that shapes which are tilted over to one side are often copied by children in a vertical or horizontal position; the child notices the shape but not the tilt. Hardest of all is the distinction between facing to the right and facing to the left. Even we might find it difficult to notice the difference between a picture with people facing to the right, and one with the same people facing to the left. A child makes little distinction between right and left; he has to be taught which is his right and which his left hand. Small wonder then that until he is six to seven years old he may not see any difference between the reversed letters, 'b' and 'd', 'p' and 'q'; or even the inverted letters 'n' and 'u'. And if he sees

that they are different, he may not remember which is which, because usually remembering is harder than perceiving. But it has been found, notably by E. Newson (5), that it is possible to train children of about four years old to recognize the differences between shapes facing in opposite directions; and that such training may be valuable to them when they begin learning to read.

It is true of course that comparatively few letters are completely reversible; though several are very similar in shape. But the same kind of difficulty often occurs in the reading of whole words; and it may persist longer than does the reversal of letters. To the child a word may look much the same with the letters all jumbled up, or even completely reversed in order. The letter shapes are the same; why should it matter what order they are in? J. Piaget and B. Inhelder (7) found that children of five or six had little notion of order, even of objects in a row. If they were asked to copy the order of beads on a string, they had to pick up one bead at a time and match each one in turn to those on the string. They could not remember the order in matching with their beads. Many people who have experimented on children's reading have found that they

confuse words with other words containing the same letters in a different order, or even with the letters in reversed order—such as 'no' and 'on', 'was' and 'saw'. Of course such confusion is unlikely to occur with words read in context; but it may be troublesome in the reading of phonetic units.

It may appear at first sight that these inaccuracies in perception would constitute a considerable handicap to the child learning to read; and probably they do make reading more difficult. But in point of fact, most of them seem to die out naturally as the child matures, and to become relatively unimportant at about seven years of age. Unfortunately, however, they may persist in children who have unusual difficulty in learning to read. Even when these children see and read letters fairly correctly, they seem to lack the ability to analyse out words into their constituent letters or phonetic units; or to remember the correct order of letters in the word. But it is doubtful if this is a purely perceptual defect. It seems more likely that there is some obscure deficiency in the backward reader's powers of reasoning about words and letters. This deficiency is difficult to understand, and as yet we do not know what causes it.

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Reading Guidance Programs

A School-Wide Responsibility

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THE PROBLEM confronting school staffs in developing effective reading guidance programs for children and youth is succinctly stated by Gilbert Highet in these words: "But it is useless simply to tell youngsters to read *A Book*. It is like telling them to go away and live for *A Year*." (3)

How are teachers to provide more useful, realistic, effective, and rewarding reading experiences for their pupils. Taking into account the vast outpouring of printed information and the need for people to understand and to share meanings with others, how are skill and interest in reading to be promoted for ever-increasing numbers of children and youth? How are pupils to acquire real skill in reading; the skill to select, organize, interpret and utilize information in the process of thinking? How can they be taught to take facts, to manipulate them and apply them to new situations, to "turn the white light of reason" on personal, civic and social problems. How may teachers guide the reading of their pupils so that books become a means of extending experience, of gaining insight into human behavior, a testing ground for clarifying values and beliefs, for insuring life-long learning and fulfillment? What skills need to be developed, what guidance provided?

These questions yield no easy solutions. Even the task of identifying all the aspects of the problem is a complicated one. To teachers and administra-

tors who believe that improvement is desirable and possible, two tentative solutions are proposed.

(1) Appropriate, attractive and varied reading and learning materials must be selected, organized, made easily accessible, and utilized by inventive and skillful teachers and librarians.

(2) Improved school-wide reading programs, grades 1 through 12, need to be planned and directed toward continuous growth of skill and interest in reading.

The first aspect of the problem is far easier of achievement than is the second, although not less important. Both are inter-related and inter-dependent. They may be examined one by one.

No other factor, save that of the teacher, influences more decisively the learning experiences provided youth than do the materials of instruction. The most careful pupil-teacher planning fails, the most skillful teacher is handicapped if learning materials are not attractive, appropriate and accessible. And the ever-increasing avalanche of materials that daily come from the presses and production centers, makes the task of selection increasingly complicated.

Appropriate materials will not suffice unless they are skillfully used. The increased understanding about how children learn has focussed attention on the need for teachers and school librarians alike to possess a high degree of skill in

the selection and utilization of instructional materials. The evidence is steadily accumulating to indicate that individual differences in ability to learn are not merely differences in rate of learning but in ability to learn various skills, and to learn in different situations and from diverse materials. Hence the workbook, the single textbook, and the supplementary reader will not suffice. Varied and diverse media of communication must be used to provide for individual differences, if learning is to be effected.

The school administrator's responsibility is clearcut. He must be concerned that the school library is staffed, equipped, and organized so that all instructional materials, more and better books, films, recordings, maps, globes, pictures, magazines, are readily available for the use of teachers and pupils alike. Such an undertaking implies the expansion of school library facilities and the services of librarians who are learning materials experts as well as teachers of children. But he should not expect the school librarian to assume all the responsibility. He may hope that all his teachers are acquainted with the aids and tools of book selection; the indexes, bibliographies, and other sources of reading and instructional materials and are equipped to aid the librarian in this task. With due consideration of the unique children who make up the school population, their abilities, values, and motivations, teachers and librarians may cooperatively choose appropriate learning materials for use in classrooms in school and for reading at home.

This is a relatively easy first step. The effective use of these materials, however, in the development of an adequate reading program demands a high degree of skill on the part of teachers

and librarians and the educational guidance and support of the principal. In many schools cooperative planning is going forward. Teachers and librarians are taking into account the many factors that influence the reading of children; intelligence, sex, age, interests, mass media of communication, the family and community culture and are planning reading programs that are useful and meaningful to children and youth. But the task is complicated. Reading is a means and an end in education. Children read for many purposes and a complex of skills are required.

What are the basic problems confronting a school staff who are concerned about the reading skills and interests of young people and are attempting to develop effective reading guidance programs? One can hardly be complacent if he agrees that the final test of the effectiveness of reading guidance is the reading behavior of the adults who are the products of such programs. The findings of research are somewhat disquieting.

While it is true that surveys of adult reading habits give contradictory reactions regarding the amount and quality of reading done by the average American, a number of carefully documented studies provide evidence to show that nearly two-thirds of the adult population may be considered as non-readers of books; that 75 per cent of the books published are read by 5 per cent of the people; that public library card holders comprise only 25 per cent of the adult population; that pulp magazines and newspapers are the major source of reading material; (1) and that the general effect of the reading done by many adults is aptly described by Edgar Dale when he reports that while reading, like

television, may help to mature people, it may also arrest them at infantile levels of development. (2) Russell states that 13.5 per cent of adults over twenty-five years of age are functionally illiterate since their reading ability is below fourth-grade level. (4)

The surveys of reader interest among school children provide similar reactions. Studies of leisure-reading interest show that a marked decline in interest starts in the middle grades, and progresses throughout the high school grades. A study of leisure reading interests by Sheldon and Cutts reveals that about "half of the above-average and superior readers have reading as an out-of-school interest or hobby, about one-fourth of the average and only one-tenth of the below-average readers seemed to be interested in reading at home. (5) Findings regarding reading retardation and the functional illiteracy of many high school students are too well known to be recounted. While it is true that many pupils acquire high interest and efficiency in reading, far too many young people who make up typical school populations become increasingly uninterested and hostile as, grade by grade, they are forced to pursue more and more unintelligible materials.

Taking into account that books may provide the skillful reader a complete record of man's best thinking, may be instruments for the charging of the mind and spirit, are there not better ways of organizing guidance programs so that reading becomes more useful and meaningful to children and youth?

It seems fair to assume that the initial step in developing a program to promote lasting interest and skill in reading is taken when the entire school staff has opportunity to evaluate without defensiveness their own current reading pro-

grams, and to clarify their own values and beliefs about the place and importance of reading in the schools. The job calls for staff members who believe that every teacher is a reading teacher and who have the skill to work co-operatively on the undertaking. It requires resources, facilities, schedules and a way of working. It demands some general agreements on objectives, the detailing of procedures, the continuous evaluation of results.

A number of assumptions and general suggestions are briefly stated. They suggest a theoretical base which school staffs might use to evaluate present reading guidance programs and to plan for improvement.

(1) Books and reading are a rich meeting ground, a promising focus for teaching understandings and values, for the development of the knowledge, appreciations, and beliefs required by the individual in dealing with his own problems and in relating himself effectively with others. Reading, however, is a complicated skill, and the degree to which a high potential is attained by pupils depends on the teacher's understanding of the specific values in books; on his understandings of the motivations, abilities, problems, concerns, and interests of his pupils; and on his skill in encouraging young people to read and to generalize from their reading, to relate and apply the understandings and values in many situations and associations.

(2) There should be no assumption that boys and girls in the middle and upper grades have learned to read and hence have no further need for reading guidance in the content subjects. Reading the words is a basic skill, but discovering what the words mean, relating ideas, utilizing and applying the knowledge gained is skill in reading. More-

over, there are a number of intermediate skills such as skimming, outlining, note-taking, reporting that are essential in the gathering and utilization of knowledge. These are not acquired by chance. They must be taught.

(3) In the intermediate and high school grades provision needs to be made for the deliberate teaching of the more complicated reading and learning skills. Reading for knowledge and understanding involves skill in the selecting, organizing, evaluating, interpreting and utilizing of facts and information. It involves a variety of skills depending on the individual's purpose in reading. No carefully devised program can be followed grade by grade, yet some developmental line should be followed within a planned program to insure that the pupil develops these skills when they are essential and useful.

(4) The idea that the child will learn to read by reading and that he will develop interest in books if they are made accessible to him is no longer acceptable. School administrators, librarians, and teachers must continue their efforts to provide reading materials that meet the needs and interests of their pupils. Exposure to books and other non-directive reading guidance techniques are sufficient motivations for numbers of children. For still larger numbers, free reading periods in the classroom or library, when little guidance is given, produce neither interest or skill. Librarians and teachers must provide real learning situations, taking into account such viewpoints about learning as readiness, relatedness, and usefulness of learning experiences.

(5) Skill and interest must be considered interdependent factors in the development of reading tastes and habits. The skillful reader tends to de-

velop and maintain high interest in reading. In turn, high interest motivates the development of greater skill. In planning reading programs teachers and librarians tend to consider these two factors as mutually exclusive. They make a sharp distinction between free, voluntary, or recreational reading, and the required or reference reading. The attendant result of compartmentalizing reading, of labeling and categorizing reading activities is that pupils sometimes gain the impression that free or recreational reading is interesting, while reading for information is dull and difficult.

(6) Knowledge of the reader and the factors that influence his reading tends to make the teacher or librarian less haphazard in his selection of reading materials, more skillful in planning learning activities. The measure of his success will be in direct proportion to the rapport that exists between him and the pupil and the skill he exhibits in using books not only as sources of information but as a rich ground for teaching understandings and values, for aiding youth with their developmental tasks, their problems and concerns, for helping them to understand their own behavior and the behavior of others.

One of the most important by-products of this approach to reading guidance is increased interest in and love of books. When a child meets in the pages of a book a person grappling with the same problems and tasks as his own, the chances are that the book will hold tremendous interest for him.

Instead of starting with the books adults think children should read, teachers and librarians should start with the needs of children, and on the basis of these needs search for appropriate books and develop adequate guidance

which at the secondary level often needs to be directed toward the modification of behavior—toward the re-education of the child.

(7) As a result of the increasing demands of the curriculum, school libraries have changed from highly selected book collections to materials centers where all media of communication are organized, maintained, and circulated for use in the school. In addition, the modern school library houses professional books, resource units, and curriculum guides. Thus it becomes in a

very real sense the teaching-learning center of the school, and teachers as well as librarians need to be expert in the selection and use of its resources and facilities.

The reading program is irrevocably dependent on these materials. Teachers and librarians alike need to teach children to be skillful users of the world of communication media of which the printed word "still appears to be the most efficient and effective" method of conveying thought.

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